

# Public Personnel Review



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No. 2

- Teamwork in Recruiting and Selecting Employees
- Management Improvement Through Objective Supervisory Selection
- How To Take a Civil Service Examination
- An Evaluation of the Predictors Used to Select Patrolmen
- Personnel Services for Local Government
- Recommendations of the Hoover Commission with Regard to Personnel
- Personnel Opinions
- The Bookshelf
- Personnel Literature

**Quarterly Journal of the Civil Service Assembly**

# PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

The Quarterly Journal of the Civil Service Assembly  
of the United States and Canada

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The quarterly journal of Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada provides a medium for the publication of factual material, and for materials that may represent divergent ideas, judgments, and opinions. The views expressed in articles and other contributions are those of the authors, and may not be construed as reflecting the views of the Assembly or the editors unless so stated.

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# RHETORICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

I have never in my life been tempted to issue a questionnaire. The fact that I am forced to use this word—there being no English equivalent—proves that the thing itself is of foreign origin and that the vice is not native with us. That the word has a secondary meaning among the French, “torturer”, shows what they think of it. . . . I do not want to torment other people in this particular way. But many men do; and the vice is becoming more prevalent. Every year, so it seems to me, more men fall victims to it, and once a man begins he cannot stop. As in the case of opium-eaters, each indulgence results in increased craving, and the habit becomes confirmed perhaps beyond the hope of remedy. . . .

I was for twenty-one years subject to a bishop who asked me my name, on a printed form, every May. . . . I used to wonder sometimes what would happen if I wrote down that my name was Sanders Sanderson or John Smith. Would he be surprised? Would he, with mild remonstrance, call my attention to an inaccuracy in my return? I fancy not. In all probability he never read a word I wrote for him, my name or anything else. . . .

I did try a similar experiment once on an Education Office. It wanted to know the measurements of a schoolroom. The proper way of finding that out was to ask one of its own inspectors, who constantly visited the school and always wrote down its dimensions in a notebook. That, I suppose, did not occur to the clerk who issued the form of inquiry. He sent his question to me. I answered it. The next year he asked it again, and again I answered it. The third year the same question came to me. I was annoyed, and said that the room was the same size as before.

This was a perfectly reasonable answer. Schoolrooms are not trees. They do not grow, and nobody could have added a foot or cut a yard off that room without an inspector dis-

covering the fact immediately. That answer was no use. The clerk, who kept his temper all the time, took no notice of it, and went on sending me copies of the question until at last I gave him figures.

But I did not give him the figures I had given him before. I doubled the dimensions of the schoolroom. He appeared to be perfectly satisfied. The next year I doubled them again. He expressed neither surprise nor misgiving. In the course of five or six years that schoolroom became a great deal larger than St. Paul's. It was really, according to the figures I gave, an immense building, perhaps the largest in the world. Even a fourteen-year-old office boy would, I thought, be struck by the existence of such a structure in a small village. But the education authority remained placidly indifferent. Then I suddenly reduced the size of the room, giving measurements which would have been small for a sentry-box. It would have been impossible to get three children, without a teacher, into that schoolroom. The education authority made no comment at all.

Why was that question asked? Why was an answer insisted upon? Clearly no use was ever made of the figures I returned. If statistics had been compiled from them and plotted into a graph the result would have been grotesque. The least intelligent official could not have failed to notice the existence of a schoolroom far bigger than the Albert Hall which shrank in the course of a year to the size of an American tourist's trunk, if he had ever read my returns. There is no explanation of the asking of such questions except the one I have suggested. The men who ask them are “mentally deficient.” They have reached this unhappy state by long indulgence in a seductive vice. —George A. Birmingham. Reprinted with permission from *Public Service*, December, 1954, the journal of the Public Service Commission, New Zealand.



# Teamwork in Recruiting and Selecting Employees

—Charles W. Terry

PERHAPS a little more than usual has been written about "civil service" in recent years, though it has long been a popular subject. Big and little Hoover Commissions, legislative committees, and other study groups have come forward with a wide assortment of reports—most of them critical of present-day personnel practices. What they offer in the way of suggestions for improvements usually concerns policies that can be adopted only by modifying personnel laws. Even so, they occasionally contain observations, followed by conclusions and proposals, that make us personnel administrators feel uneasy about almost everything we are doing. They sometimes appear to suggest that perhaps we're defeating, rather than helping obtain, objectives for which we work.

We don't like this criticism, but the over-all effect probably is good. It has caused personnel people to take a new look at some practices that were once considered standard. Proof is found in the flood of personnel questionnaires that have been circulating throughout the country. The recent rapid growth of our research and service organization, the Civil Service Assembly, is an encouraging development that may have been influenced by criticisms leveled at us. Whatever the cause, we know there is considerable activity in the public personnel field. The search is on for new ideas, and new application of old ideas.

One of our older problems, that is now receiving more than the usual amount of attention, concerns policies and practices in recruiting and selecting new employees. In this field we have, for a long time, stood face to face with a critically important but unanswered question: What can be done to get a fair share of our more able citizens

into government service? We must find an answer to this question. Unless something is done *now* to attract able young people to careers in government, there may be management problems ahead somewhat more serious than those that are often spotlighted today. In its broader aspects this problem involves such things as public attitude toward the public service, compensation, and prestige. These are conditions that determine the fertility of the soil in which recruiting and selecting work is done. However, our primary responsibility as personnel people is with grub-hoe and pick-ax type activities. Hard work often produces good crops in spite of poor soil conditions. This is especially true if advantage is taken of advice and assistance that often may be had just for the asking. Quite a few personnel people have found this agricultural principle gets pretty good results when applied to recruiting efforts.

## Teamwork in Recruiting

Before we start looking for people to fill jobs, we must know what kind of people we are looking for. In large organizations, both public and private, it is usually considered important that a set of job specifications be developed to be used as guides in selecting employees by both division supervisors and personnel people. Government agencies that have not developed job specifications can obtain help from agencies that have. However, specifications made up largely from samples of those used in other jurisdictions may not serve the purpose for which they are intended. When they are not tailored to fit specific jobs, they may cause trouble. If they fall short in setting forth job requirements, people may be recruited who will not be able to perform the work. This results in wasted time and effort and poor public relations. If job requirements are overstated, persons who are capable of handling these jobs will decline to apply because they do

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not possess nonessential qualifications.

Carelessness in the development of job specifications can get a personnel program off to a bad start. It is the job of the personnel department to make certain specifications are sound. This is difficult to achieve without thoughtful cooperation from supervisors in the agencies we serve. We must convince them that specifications are working tools—that they serve a useful purpose for both personnel people and line supervisors. Once convinced that this is true, line supervisors are more likely to give them the careful attention they deserve. They may also be more prompt in letting the personnel department know when changes in assignments and organizations are contemplated that should be reflected in job specifications.

If there is anyone today who believes that recruiting employees for government services is an operation to be handled exclusively by personnel agencies, he is not very well acquainted with the problem. This is an area where we are seeking assistance from all quarters. The assistance of supervisors in operating divisions is especially needed, and is usually requested. It is not difficult to obtain this assistance from experienced administrators. They are acquainted with our problem and realize that high-grade employees cannot be selected through any screening process that we may use on a group of poorly qualified applicants. Often they will act on their own initiative, employing all the resources of their agency to encourage the best qualified people available to become applicants.

Inexperienced administrators are not as likely to volunteer their assistance. They are inclined to take no action until presented with a certification of eligible applicants to fill positions in their agencies. At this point they may become quite critical if they are not pleased with qualifications of applicants who have been referred to them. Criticism of this type can frequently be avoided by a little effort on our part. Possibly all that is needed is to tell division supervisors how they can help with recruiting. A good first step toward obtaining this assistance is to discuss the problem with them. We can point out that no mat-

ter how much the personnel division advertises through the usual channels, some potential applicants who are well-qualified may not be aware that a recruiting campaign is under way. We can point out that person-to-person advertising by division supervisors and their employees has often proved effective. Most of them will readily see the logic of their taking part in the campaign. From that point, all we may need to do to gain their assistance is to make certain that they are adequately supplied with examination announcements and forms. Sometimes it will be helpful to mention some organizations or individuals who are in a position to help with recruiting and therefore should be contacted. When we are attempting to recruit college graduates we should be able to persuade division supervisors to talk with senior classes in some of our colleges about the advantages of working in their agencies. We can assure them that such personal contacts and discussions have been known to create interest in government work where none had previously existed.

These are but a few of the ways in which supervisors of operating divisions can help recruit competent employees. Such teamwork produces better recruiting results, of course, but it also serves another worthwhile purpose. *It establishes the foundation for future cooperative efforts in other personnel activities.*

#### **Supervisors of Operating Divisions Can Help with the Examination Program**

While few, if any, personnel people will question the desirability of teamwork in recruiting applicants, there is some difference of opinion about the advisability of continuing this cooperation into the examination program. Also, some supervisors are hesitant about being connected, in any way, with this part of our activities. Obviously, there are reasons that justify exercise of caution at this point. However, examination activities do not have to be conducted behind locked doors. Assistance from supervisors of operating divisions can be used to improve the quality of tests. Under most conditions, personnel people have more to gain than lose through the use of such assistance.

**Written Examinations.**—Central personnel offices usually maintain files of examination material that contain thousands of test items. These items have been constructed by technicians and subject matter experts in different parts of the country. It is important that they be checked by local experts—for their accuracy and their pertinence to local work assignments. This checking can best be done by either supervisors of operating divisions or members of their administrative and technical staffs.

In planning the construction of written tests, most technicians first develop outlines. Job specifications furnish the key to the proper files from which question material should be drawn. Specifications may also indicate a reasonable balance between different types of questions that are to be used, but this is a matter of judgment. Quite often it is desirable to discuss these outlines with division supervisors. There may be good reasons why technicians' outlines, with reference to balances between different types of questions, should be modified. Consultations with operating officials on such matters do not violate the security of tests, and they often help to avoid using questions that are not sufficiently related to the work to help select the best qualified applicants. Also, such consultations should reduce the chances of including test items that are keyed incorrectly. Last, but by no means least, supervisors of operating divisions are likely to have more confidence in results obtained from tests which they, or their assistants, helped construct.

**Unassembled Examinations.**—Teamwork in establishing eligible lists through unassembled examinations presents fewer problems than is the case with written tests. Mostly, it involves obtaining opinions of operating supervisors concerning proper values to be assigned to different kinds of experience that qualify applicants for positions in their agency. In making use of these cooperatively developed rating scales, further advice may be needed in evaluating occasional instances of unusual types of experience. Supervisors of operating divisions can also help the personnel department verify questionable experience claims. Again, teamwork is likely to pro-

duce more accurate alignments of applicants according to their qualifications, and in using lists established from such tests, supervisors will be impressed with the fact that their judgment has been taken into consideration.

**Interviews.**—The use of interviews as a part of the examining process frequently appeals to supervisors of operating divisions. This is particularly true when the position involves extensive public contacts. Supervisors are anxious to avoid hiring people who may appear to be well qualified, but because of personality difficulties are ineffectual, or worse. A carefully selected interview board can help weed out applicants whose personalities are not suitable for some types of work. Conversely, they can help select those applicants who appear to be most suitable personality-wise. Division supervisors can help the personnel department decide when interview boards are likely to be useful and suggest qualified people for service on such boards. Supervisors should be allowed to sit as observers while interviews are being conducted if they wish to do so. This will give them an opportunity to obtain information about applicants they will later interview for employment, and may serve to expedite the filling of a vacancy. If they are present during interviews, they should be given an opportunity to discuss with the interview board personality traits that they consider important to success in the work for which tests are being conducted. However, they should not participate in the board's discussions of individual applicants.

#### Cooperation in Selecting Employees and Testing Them on the Job

In agencies where personnel people and supervisors of operating divisions have worked together in recruiting and testing applicants, teamwork in the selection of employees from eligible lists comes easy. In the first place, supervisors are not likely to find it very difficult to make selections from the list of top applicants which is sent to them. Still, it is important to keep channels of communication open. A certification of eligibles should contain considerably more than a list of names and ad-

resses. It should furnish all the information the personnel department has about the people who are being certified as eligible for employment. The operating supervisor should, and probably will, respond to this type of cooperation by transmitting any new information he obtains about applicants through interviews or investigations.

Final selection has not been accomplished at the point where applicants have been employed and given assignments. A very important step in the selection process is yet to be accomplished. The trial service, or probationary period, is meant to be used as the final test of suitability. Unfortunately, it is seldom given the consideration it deserves. One of the reasons for this failure is that many agencies do not have well-developed work standards against which to measure the performance of the new employee. Usually it is thought to be the duty of personnel people to develop such standards. However, this is an area where our efforts are completely futile unless there is full cooperation from operating supervisors. On the other hand, it is possible for supervisors to develop work standards, and apply them effectively within their agency, without much assistance from the central personnel office. It is usually considered desirable to have uniform standards that are equitably applied throughout the entire service. This is why it is logical to have this task assigned to the personnel department, even though we may have all but ignored it. Some of us have assumed that time spent developing work standards would be wasted, since most division supervisors would not use them. This is probably a valid assumption under some conditions. It may not continue to be valid in an organization where personnel people and division supervisors are working together as a team. The usefulness of carefully developed and thoroughly understood work standards has been demonstrated many times. This is an area that contains considerable challenge for public personnel people.

Probationary periods appear to serve a more useful purpose in jurisdictions where personnel policies permit a reasonable amount of flexibility. Most state and local

civil service laws establish six months as the normal period for a supervisor to determine the effectiveness of an employee in a particular position. This is quite adequate for many types of positions, but more time is needed in others. Where laws permit flexibility, the development of standards for probationary periods to be applied to different classes of workers should always be a cooperative project between personnel people and division supervisors. Also, personnel policies should not make it difficult for supervisors to arrange extensions of probationary periods in instances where, for stated reasons, they need more time to make final determinations about the suitability of employees. This type cooperation will encourage use of the probationary period to eliminate employees who have been unable to adapt themselves to assigned tasks, or who have poor work habits that apparently they cannot or will not correct.

#### The Give-and-Take Involved in a Cooperative Personnel Program

The teamwork that has been frequently mentioned in this article means exactly what the word implies—people pulling together toward a common objective. Those of us who have been in the public service for some time realize that perfect teamwork in governmental organizations is difficult to achieve. There are many reasons for this. Some of them cannot be properly discussed within the scope of this article, but others are matters that confront us frequently and should be understood and dealt with.

One of our most difficult, and most important, tasks is to eliminate any confusion that exists about our function on the government team. In the eyes of some, personnel people are employee representatives who are forever agitating for shorter work hours and more pay, or in other words, more money for less work. To others, we may appear to be management spies who are forever prying into other people's business. There are still others who think of us as reformers who have been placed in the middle of government organizations to reform the politicians, or at least keep them in line. None of these

attitudes helps us win friends among all the people we need to work with in order to do a good job. It is not always easy to convince members from these different groups that our proper position is somewhere near the center of the circle; that our objective is service to all the people who are a part of the organization in which we work. Yet it is important that we do just this.

One of the prerequisites to obtaining cooperation from both officials and employees is to develop an understanding of our activities. At any point where these activities do not make good sense to the people we work with we encounter an obstacle to teamwork. In this category I believe the difficulties connected with common practices in handling of provisional appointments should head the list. I have found it most difficult to explain satisfactorily why a provisional appointee who has been in a job for several months, has been trained, and is doing good work, should be replaced simply because he is not high enough on an eligible list to be certified. This is true even when no politics are involved. In such instances, supervisors are most impressed with the waste of having to repeat a training process. Of course, we have an explanation. It is an involved one, and may make good sense to us, but it is hardly worth while to use it. Usually, it is just as well to state that we are following the law and apologize for the fact that we did not have an eligible list for the supervisor to select from at the time the provisional appointment was made. This is a generally recognized weakness that personnel people are trying to overcome. The best cure seems to be broader use of open continuous examinations where this is possible. Large organizations with relatively small personnel staffs haven't been able to make extensive use of this solution, and are still searching for a more practical answer.

Paper work is another area in which personnel people can overtax the patience of division supervisors. Our best defense here is to make it as easy as we can for operating agencies to furnish us with essential information—and convince them that we have done this. Simplified forms and

procedures manuals have been effectively used for this purpose. Also, it is helpful for us to discover ways that information accumulated in the central personnel office can be made useful to division supervisors and then make it available to them.

Supervisors of operating divisions also must contribute to the give-and-take that is essential to the development of teamwork. It is particularly desirable for them to at least recognize personnel people as workers in a legitimate occupation. This should not be difficult for them to do. Personnel divisions are, for the most part, created by laws, very much in the same manner as other governmental agencies are established. Once this point of common origin is recognized, a basis is established for working out areas of conflict that may develop from legal requirements. Legal obligations and restrictions play a rather prominent part in the operations of practically all government agencies. Once we have overcome these legal obstacles to teamwork, cooperation is more likely to appear to be mutually desirable.

#### Teamwork as an Answer to Critics

Often personnel people are criticized for their lack of imagination in developing recruiting programs. Criticism of our examination procedures has long been a popular pastime for some supervisors of operating divisions. At least a part of this criticism grows out of a lack of knowledge as to just what is involved in this part of our work. Past experience has indicated that fault-finding is sharply reduced when supervisors take an active part in our recruiting and selecting program. There are enough testimonials to prove that they usually develop a healthy respect for the problems we encounter. This brings about both greater appreciation for the good work we are able to do in this field and more tolerance for occasional poor results.

Obviously, teamwork in selecting and recruiting employees will not work if either the personnel people or supervisors of operating divisions will have no part of it, but this is not a normal condition. I believe the benefit that can be obtained almost always makes it worth a try.



# Management Improvement Through Objective Supervisory Selection

Joseph G. Colmen, G. O. Fiedler  
and Laurence Kashdan

THE SUPERVISOR's role as a vital link between workers and management is rapidly gaining the attention it deserves as the key to productivity and effective employee relations. Recognition of this fact led the Director of Civilian Personnel, Headquarters United States Air Force, as early as 1951 to program a four-fold attack on the problem of increasing supervisory effectiveness by (1) improving the process of selecting supervisors; (2) improving the training of supervisors; (3) establishing a program, under the direction of the personnel office, to help supervisors do a better job of discharging their human relations responsibilities; and (4) recognizing and compensating personnel management responsibilities in supervisory wage board positions.

Air Force recognition of the need for improved selection of supervisors was further substantiated by the United States Senate Report No. 2100 to the 82nd Congress on Supervisory Selection in the federal government. This report listed the following reasons for the failure of government to obtain the best available personnel for supervisory positions: (1) the stress laid upon technical proficiency of supervisory candidates to the detriment of leadership qualities and ability to get along with people; (2) undue emphasis upon seniority; (3) choosing supervisors

without a reservoir of potential supervisors when a vacancy occurs; (4) resistance to crossing organizational lines; and (5) placing undue emphasis on personal knowledge of a candidate.

Such defects are largely remedied by the broad objective type program of supervisory selection instituted in the U. S. Air Force. This article describes the development and use of the Air Force Civilian Supervisory Selection Battery and the part it is contributing to improved selection of supervisors.<sup>1</sup>

## Objectives of the Battery

It is generally recognized that the job duties of supervisors vary with the organization and with the particular supervisory situation. However, there are certain broad functions common to all supervisory jobs, the performance of which tends to differentiate between the successful and the unsuccessful supervisor. These functions may be dichotomized into the area of supervisory duties related to job operations, and supervisory duties related to the workers themselves. It is in the latter area where supervisory shortcomings have most often arisen. Supervisors deficient in human relation abilities find it difficult to maintain job production due to factors such as excessive employee turnover, poor employee morale, and absenteeism. In developing the Civilian Supervisory Selection Batteries, the Air Force sought to

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• **Laurence Kashdan** has recently received his M.A. degree from George Washington University. He was formerly a Research Assistant with the U.S. Civil Service Commission's Test Development Section.

<sup>1</sup> This research was conducted under the direction of Dr. Joseph G. Colmen, Chief, Civilian Personnel Research Branch. Technical responsibility was vested in Mr. Gotthelf O. Fiedler and Mr. Laurence Kashdan. Others who worked on various portions of the project were: Mr. James R. Blackburn, Mr. Charles Scoggins, Mrs. Ruth Raffaelli and Mr. Roy Davidson. Assistance of numerous field personnel at Wright-Patterson Air Force Base, Tinker Air Force Base, Maxwell Air Force Base and Hill Air Force Base is gratefully acknowledged. The Civilian Personnel Research Branch is located in the Directorate of Civilian Personnel, Headquarters USAF.



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locate, through objective methods, employees capable of supervisory judgment as distinguished from the technical aspects of the job and equally capable of understanding people and maintaining satisfactory supervisory relationships.

### Structure of the Tests<sup>2</sup>

The tests referred to as the "CSSB" or "Civilian Supervisory Selection Battery," consist of two different forms each with two series. CSSB-1 and CSSB-2 are used to identify clerical and professional personnel with supervisory potential; both series are equivalent and interchangeable. CSSB-3 and CSSB-4 are used to identify wage board personnel with supervisory potential; both series are equivalent and interchangeable.

The CSSB measures four areas: (1) supervisory judgment, (2) supervisory attitudes, (3) supervisory interests, and (4) personal characteristics. CSSB-1 and 2 include the first three areas. CSSB-3 and 4 include measures of all four areas. To maintain necessary safeguards surrounding the security of the tests, copies are not made available outside of the Department of the Air Force. Descriptions of the questions are given below to illustrate the types included in the batteries.

Supervisory judgment is evaluated by a test which requires that candidates choose among several alternatives the best course of action in a supervisory situation, or make judgments, among several statements, of the appropriate principles of supervision governing the specific situation.

Supervisory attitudes are evaluated by a test which presents a list of statements about workers or people in general for which the candidate indicates the extent of his agreement or disagreement with the statement. These items are scored on the basis of the amount of correspondence between the candidate's answer and the answers successful and unsuccessful supervisors at various Air Force installations have made to the items.

Supervisory interests are evaluated by a

<sup>2</sup> Test materials used in the experimental study were made available to the Air Force by the cooperation of the Test Research Section, U. S. Civil Service Commission.

test which presents a series of items designed to find out the candidate's preference for different types of work. From a series of activities, candidates are asked to mark the activity which they would most like to do and the one they would least like to do, if they had the training necessary for all the activities. The items are scored on the basis of those activities most liked and least liked by successful and unsuccessful supervisors at many Air Force installations. This test is scored in a manner similar to the supervisory attitudes test.

The personal characteristics of potential supervisors are measured by a set of non-controversial biographical questions about the candidate's early history, his previous job experiences, or his family life.

### Experimental Development of the Battery

The following brief summary of development of CSSB-3 illustrates the way the Air Force batteries were developed. Experimental test data were gathered from hundreds of Air Force supervisors in wage board occupations. The standard used in selecting the sample was three-fold: (1) the individual should be a fully trained supervisor; (2) the individual should supervise at least three people; and (3) although supervision need not be the only job element, it is required that it be an essential element of the job duties.

Job performance ratings were obtained from the supervisors' superiors and subordinates. The total group was then divided into three sub-groups:

1. The first sub-group was used to identify those test items which discriminated between the good and poor workers.
2. To be sure that these items were correctly reflecting supervisory job performance, the tests consisting of the items selected from the first sub-group were checked against rated supervisory job performance of the second group.
3. The battery of tests which proved valid as indicators of job performance in the second sub-group were finally cross-checked on the third sub-group. This gave added confidence that the final recommended battery was not selected by chance factors.

Correlation (uncorrected) of the final

battery with the criterion for wage board employees was 0.39. Because this validation study was conducted only with wage board employees, CSSB-3 and 4 are restricted to wage board employees. Tests resulting from an earlier study of a somewhat similar nature with professional and clerical employees are identified as CSSB-1 and 2.

#### Use and Results of the Civilian Supervisory Selection Battery

The CSSB is now being used at all Zone of Interior Air Force installations in conjunction with the more traditional methods of selection such as evaluation of experience, training, past history, personality, and other traits as reflected in application forms, vouchers, and individual interviews.

CSSB Forms 1 and 2 are used to select potential firsts or second level supervisors of clerical personnel and potential first-level supervisors of administrative, tech-

nical, and professional personnel. CSSB Forms 3 and 4 are used to select potential supervisors up to and including foremen of personnel in wage board positions. Regulatory and guide material have been prepared for field instruction. The implementation of the batteries into the Air Force supervisory selection program insures (1) their mandatory use when considering a person for a first-line supervisory position, and (2) local determination beyond a recommended cut-off score as to the manner in which that test score will be considered in determining promotion to an initial supervisory position.

The minimum cut-off (or qualifying) score on this battery was determined at a point where those scoring below would have the minimum likelihood of performing successfully as supervisors. Table I shows the quality of job performance as related to achievement on the Civilian Supervisory Selection Battery (CSSB-1 and 2).

TABLE I  
Quality of Supervisory Job Performance As Related to Achievement on CSSB-1

Priority Group	Converted Test Score	Interpretation
Ineligible	less than 50	About 10% of sample supervisors fell below this score on either Supervisory Judgment or Supervisory Attitudes plus Interests. Superiors generally rated the supervisors in this group as "showing need for improvement."
C	50-55	The next 45% of the supervisors tested obtained scores of 50 or above on Supervisory Judgment and Supervisory Attitudes and Supervisory Interest. Superiors generally rated these supervisors as "typically effective."
B	56-61	The next 39% of the supervisors tested obtained scores of 56 and above on Supervisory Judgment and Supervisory Attitudes and Supervisory Interest. Superiors generally rated these supervisors as "very effective."
A	62 and above	The highest 6% of the employed supervisors scored above 62 on Supervisory Judgment and Supervisory Attitudes and Supervisory Interest. These supervisors were generally rated by superiors as "often exceptional."

TABLE II

Ability of CSSB-1 to Predict Success As a Supervisor in Clerical and Professional Occupations

<i>Special Performance Evaluation</i>	<i>Test Priority Group</i>			
	<i>D</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>A</i>
Often exceptional .....	10%	15%	25%	(65%)
Very effective .....	20%	20%	(40%)	35%
Typically effective .....	30%	(35%)	25%	
Needing improvement .....	(40%)	30%	10%	

Table II indicates the ability of CSSB-1 to predict success as a supervisor at selected Air Force bases. Priority groups correspond to the order in which candidates are chosen to fill vacancies in supervisory positions.

By looking at the two extreme priority groups (A and D), it can readily be seen that of those supervisors who made an ineligible (D) score on the test battery, 40% showed "need for improvement" in job performance and only 10% were rated as "often exceptional." Of those scoring in the A priority group, 65% were rated "often exceptional," and none was characterized as "showing need for improvement." While test batteries seldom if ever

yield perfect prediction, it is evident that the odds are definitely in favor of selecting people with potentiality from the higher priority groups on CSSB.

Table III shows the effectiveness of CSSB-3 in predicting success as a supervisor when used on a sample of wage board supervisors at an Air Force base.

Although 79% of supervisors in the above sample were rated satisfactory or better by superiors and subordinates, the number of satisfactory supervisors in any organization will vary. Table IV shows the anticipated improvement in supervisory effectiveness by use of CSSB-3 when candidates are being considered for selection from different score ranges. It indi-

TABLE III

Ability of CSSB-3 to Predict Success As a Supervisor in Wage Board Occupations

<i>Special Performance Evaluation</i>	<i>Test Score</i>	
	<i>67 and below</i>	<i>68 and above</i>
Satisfactory or better .....	17%	62%
Less than satisfactory .....	14%	7%

TABLE IV

Expected Proportion of Satisfactory Supervisors by Application of Various CSSB-3 Test Cut-Off Scores\*

<i>Proportion of Supervisors Considered Satisfactory</i>	<i>CSSB-3 Test Cut-Off Score</i>			
	<i>90 and Above</i>	<i>75 and Above</i>	<i>50 and Above</i>	<i>Below 50</i>
30%	63%	41%	33%	30%
50%	82%	63%	54%	50%
70%	93%	82%	74%	70%
90%	99%	96%	92%	90%

\* Adapted from H. C. Taylor and J. T. Russell, "The Relationship of Validity Coefficients to the Practical Effectiveness of Tests in Selection: Discussion and Tables," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXIII (1939), pp. 565-578.

cates the percentage improvement to be expected depending upon the proportion of present supervisors considered satisfactory.

It may be seen from this table that when the present methods for selecting supervisors are relatively ineffective, as reflected by the proportion of supervisors considered satisfactory, adding the screening provided by the test has considerable value. The increased effectiveness of the test is further demonstrated when candidates with the higher test scores are given priority consideration.

The Air Force civilian supervisory se-

lection program has been well received by operating officials as an aid in selecting competent supervisors. A concomitant morale advantage of the program may be expected from use of a device considered equitable by persons eligible for supervisory positions. Support for this belief is found partially in response to an attitude survey of a large organization within an Air Force base where 75 percent of the employees and supervisors expressed a willingness to have written tests used as an aid in placement. Continued research and follow-up is maintained to effect improvement based on field experience.

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# How To Take a Civil Service Examination

Dorothy W. Otten

**E**XAMINATION applicants often ask civil service offices for help in preparing for the written test: What can I study in advance? What kinds of questions will be asked? How will the test be given? How will the papers be graded?

As an applicant for a civil service examination, you may be wondering about some of these things. Our purpose here is to suggest effective methods of advance study and to describe civil service examinations.

Your chances for success on this examination can be increased if you know how

to prepare. Those "pre-examination jitters" can be reduced if you know what to expect. You can even experience an adventure in good citizenship if you know why civil service examinations are given.

## Why Are Civil Service Examinations Given?

Civil service examinations are important to you in two ways. As a citizen—you want public jobs filled by employees who know how to do their work. As a job-seeker—you want a fair chance to compete for that job on an equal footing with other candidates. The best known means of accomplishing this two-fold goal is the competitive examination.

Examinations are widely publicized throughout your state or city to interest competent and qualified persons. Any citizen may apply, with some limitations such as the age or residence of applicants. Your experience and education may be reviewed to see whether you meet the requirements for the particular examination. When these requirements exist, they are reasonable and are applied consistently to all applicants. Thus, a competitive examination, although it may be causing you some uneasiness now, is your privilege and safeguard.

## How Are Civil Service Examinations Developed?

Examinations are carefully written by trained technicians who are specialists in the field known as "psychological measurement," in consultation with recognized authorities in the field of work that the test will cover. These experts recommend the subject matter areas or skills to be tested; only those knowledges or skills important to your success on the job are included. The most reliable books and source materials available are used as references. Together, the experts and technicians judge the difficulty level of the questions.

Test technicians know how to phrase questions so that the problem is clearly stated. Their ethics do not permit "trick"

*Editor's Note:* In the October, 1954, issue of this journal, the Assembly published an article titled "How To Be Interviewed." The authors, Don H. Roney and Charles H. Cushman, tried to tell candidates for positions in public agencies what to expect when they were asked to appear for an interview in order to help them "put their best foot forward." Shortly thereafter the article was reprinted in pamphlet form suitable for mailing to prospective candidates.

The accompanying article by Mrs. Dorothy Otten is an effort to provide similar information about written tests in the public service. Since this kind of help is most needed by people taking tests for clerical and subprofessional positions, Mrs. Otten has organized the material and used a simple writing style to explain how examinations are written, administered, and scored.

This article will also be reprinted as a pamphlet. Personnel agencies may order copies from the Civil Service Assembly, 1313 E. 60th, Chicago 37, Illinois, at the quantity prices listed below. A 10% discount is given for cash with order.

20 copies.....	\$ 3.00
40 copies.....	5.00
60 copies.....	7.50
80 copies.....	10.00
100 copies.....	12.00

Further price reduction on orders of 500 or more. Prices quoted on request.

• Mrs. Dorothy W. Otten is currently with the Taxpayers' Federation of Illinois, in charge of personnel and pension research. Mrs. Otten served for a number of years as Chief, Examining Division, Illinois Civil Service Commission and was also Personnel Examining Executive for the Territory of Hawaii.

or "catch" questions. Questions may have been tried out on sample groups, or subjected to statistical analysis, to determine their usefulness.

Written tests are often used in combination with performance tests, ratings of training and experience, and oral interviews. All of these measures combine to form the best known means of finding the right man for the right job.

### How To Study for Written Tests

To prepare intelligently for civil service examinations, you should know how they differ from school examinations you have taken. In school you were assigned certain definite pages to read or subjects to cover. The examination questions were quite detailed and usually emphasized memory. Civil service examinations, on the other hand, try to discover your present ability to perform the duties of a position, plus your potentiality to learn these duties. In other words, a civil service examination attempts to predict how successful you will be. Questions cover such a broad area that they cannot be as minute and detailed as school examination questions.

In the public service similar kinds of work, or positions, are grouped together in one "class." This process is known as "position-classification." All the positions in a class are paid according to the salary range for that class. One class title covers all these positions, and they are all tested by the same examination.

**1. Study the Announcement.**—How, then, can you know what subjects to study? Our best answer is: "Learn as much as possible about the class of positions for which you have applied." The examination will test the knowledge, skills, and abilities needed to do the work.

Your most valuable source of information about the position you want is the official announcement of the examination. This announcement lists the training and experience qualifications. Check these standards and apply for the job only if you come reasonably close to meeting them.

The brief description of the position in the examination announcement offers

some clues to the subjects which will be tested. Think about the job itself. Review the duties in your mind. Can you perform them, or are there some in which you are rusty? Fill in the blank spots in your preparation.

Many jurisdictions pre-view the written test in the examination announcement by including a section called "Knowledge and Abilities Required," "Scope of Examination," or some similar heading. Here you find out specifically what fields will be tested.

**2. Review Your Own Background.**—Once you learn in general what the position is all about, and what you need to know to do the work, ask yourself which subjects you already know fairly well and which need improvement. You may wonder whether to concentrate on improving your strong areas or on building some background in your fields of weakness. When the announcement has specified "some knowledge" or "considerable knowledge," or has used adjectives such as "beginning principles of . . . . . ." or "advanced . . . . . methods," you can get a clue as to the number and difficulty of questions to be asked in any given field. More questions, and hence broader coverage, would be included for those subjects which are more important in the work. Now weigh your strengths and weaknesses against the job requirements and prepare accordingly.

**3. Determine the Level of the Position.**—Another way to tell how intensely you should prepare is to understand the level of the job for which you are applying. Is it the entering level? In other words, is this the position in which beginners in a field of work are hired? Or is it an intermediate or advanced level? Sometimes this is indicated by such words as "Junior" or "Senior" in the class title. Other jurisdictions use Roman numerals to designate the level: Clerk I, Clerk II, for example. The word "Supervisor" sometimes appears in the title. If the level isn't indicated by the title, check the description of duties. Will you be working under very close supervision, or will you have responsibility for independent decisions in this work?

**4. Choose Appropriate Study Materials.**—Now that you know the subjects to be ex-



amined and the relative amount of each subject to be covered, you can choose suitable study materials. For beginning level jobs, or even advanced ones, if you have a pronounced weakness in some aspect of your training, read a modern, standard textbook in that field. Be sure it is up-to-date and has general coverage. Such books are normally available at your library, and the librarian will be glad to help you locate one. For entry level positions, questions of appropriate difficulty are chosen—neither highly advanced questions, nor those too simple. Such questions require careful thought but not advanced training.

If the position for which you are applying is technical or advanced, you will read more advanced, specialized material. If you are already familiar with the basic principles of your field, elementary textbooks would waste your time. Concentrate on advanced textbooks and technical periodicals. Think through the concepts and review difficult problems in your field.

These are all general sources. You can get more ideas on your own initiative, following these leads. For example, training manuals and publications of the government agency which employs workers in your field can be useful, particularly for technical and professional positions. A letter or visit to the government department involved may result in more specific study suggestions, and certainly will provide you with a more definite idea of the exact nature of the position you are seeking.

#### Tests of Skills and Abilities

Tests are used for purposes other than measuring knowledge and ability to perform specified duties. For some positions, it is equally important to test ability to make adjustments to new situations or to profit from training. In others, basic mental abilities not dependent upon information are essential. Questions which test these things may not appear as pertinent to the duties of the position as those which test for knowledge and information. Yet they are often highly important parts of a fair examination. For very general questions, it is almost impossible to help you direct your study efforts. What we can do

is to point out some of the more common of these general abilities needed in public service positions and describe some typical questions.

**1. General Information.**—Broad, general information has been found useful for predicting job success in some kinds of work. This is tested in a variety of ways, from vocabulary lists to questions about current events. Basic background in some field of work, such as sociology or economics, may be sampled in a group of questions. Often these are principles which have become familiar to most persons through "exposure" rather than through formal training. It is difficult to advise you how to study for these questions; being alert to the world around you is our best suggestion.

**2. Verbal Ability.**—An example of an ability needed in many positions is verbal or language ability. Verbal ability is, in brief, the ability to use and understand words. Vocabulary and grammar tests are typical measures of this ability. "Reading comprehension" or "paragraph interpretation" questions are common in many kinds of civil service tests. You are given a paragraph of written material and, using only that paragraph, are asked to find its central meaning.

**3. Numerical Ability.**—Number skills can be tested by the familiar arithmetic problem, by checking paired lists of numbers to see which are alike and which are different, or by interpreting charts and graphs. In the latter test, a graph may be printed in the test booklet which you are asked to use as the basis for answering questions.

**4. Observation.**—A popular test for law-enforcement positions is the observation test. A picture is shown to you for several minutes then taken away. Questions about the picture test your ability to observe both details and larger elements.

**5. Following Directions.**—In many positions in the public service, the employee must be able to carry out written instructions dependably and accurately. You may be given a chart with several columns, each column listing a variety of information. The questions require you to carry out directions involving the information given in the chart.

**6. Manual Skills and Aptitudes.**—Performance tests effectively measure some manual skills and aptitudes. When the skill is one in which you are trained, such as typing or shorthand, you can practice. These tests are often very much like those given in business school or high school courses. For many of the other skills and aptitudes, however, no short time preparation can be made. Skills and abilities natural to you or that you have developed throughout your lifetime are being tested.

Many of the general questions just described provide all the data needed to answer the questions and ask you to use your reasoning ability to find the answers. Your best preparation for these tests, as well as for tests of facts and ideas, is to be at your physical and mental best. You no doubt have your own methods of getting into an exam-taking mood and keeping "in shape." The next section lists some ideas which occur to us on this subject.

#### How To Get in Condition for the Test

Common sense will help you find procedures to follow to get ready for an examination. Too many of us, however, overlook these sensible measures. Indeed, nervousness and fatigue have been found to be the most serious reasons why applicants fail to do their best on civil service tests. Here is a list of reminders which should help you.

**1. Begin Your Preparation Early.**—Don't wait until the last minute to go scurrying around for books and materials or to find out what the position is all about.

**2. Prepare Continuously.**—An hour a night for a week is better than an all-night cram session. This has been definitely established. What's more, a night a week for a month will return better dividends than crowding your study into a shorter period of time.

**3. Locate the Place of the Examination.**—You have been sent a notice telling you when and where to report for the examination. If the location is in a different town or otherwise unfamiliar to you, it would be well to inquire the best route and learn something about the building.

**4. Relax the Night Before the Test.**—Allow

your mind to rest. Don't study at all that night. Plan some mild recreation or diversion; then go to bed early and get a good night's sleep.

**5. Get Up Early Enough To Make a Leisurely Trip to the Place of the Test.**—Then unforeseen events, traffic snarls, unfamiliar buildings, won't upset you.

**6. Dress Comfortably.**—A written test is not a fashion show. You'll be known by number and not by name for this part of the examination, so wear something comfortable.

**7. Leave Excess Paraphernalia at Home.**—Shopping bags and odd bundles will get in your way. You need bring only the items mentioned in the official notice sent to you; usually everything you need is provided. Don't bring reference books to the examination. They will only confuse those last minutes and be taken from you when in the test room.

**8. Arrive Somewhat Ahead of Time.**—If because of transportation schedules you must get there very early, bring a newspaper or magazine to take your mind off yourself while waiting.

**9. Locate the Examination Room.**—When you have found the proper room, you will be directed to the seat or part of the room where you will sit. Sometimes you are given a sheet of instructions to read while you are waiting. Don't fill out any forms until you are told to do so; just read them and be ready.

**10. Relax and Prepare To Listen to the Instructions.**

#### Kinds of Questions

Only rarely is the "essay" question, which you answer in narrative form, used in civil service tests. Civil service tests are usually of the short-answer type. Full instructions for answering these questions will be given to you at the examination. But in case this is your first experience with short-answer questions and separate answer sheets, here is what you need to know.

**1. Multiple-choice Questions.**—Most popular of the short-answer questions is the "multiple-choice" or "best-answer" question. It can be used, for example, to test for factual knowledge, ability to solve

problems, or judgment in meeting situations found at work.

A multiple-choice question is normally one of three types: (1) It can begin with an incomplete statement followed by several possible endings. You are to find the one ending which *best* completes the statement, although some of the others may not be entirely wrong. (2) It can also be a complete statement in the form of a question which is answered by choosing one of the statements listed. (3) It can be in the form of a problem—again you select the best answer.

Here is an example of a multiple-choice question with a discussion which should give you some clues as to the method for choosing the right answer:

When an employee has a complaint about his assignment, the action which will best help him overcome his difficulty is

- (a) to discuss his difficulty with his co-workers
- (b) to take the problem to the head of the organization
- (c) to take the problem to the person who gave him the assignment
- (d) to say nothing to anyone about his complaint.

In answering this question you should study each of the choices to find which is best. Consider choice (a). Certainly an employee may discuss his complaint with fellow employees, but no change or improvement can result, and the complaint remains unsolved. Choice (b) is a poor choice since the head of the organization probably does not know what assignment you have been given and taking your problem to him is known as "going over the head" of the supervisor. The supervisor, or person who made the assignment, is the person who can clarify it or correct any injustice. Choice (c) is therefore correct. To say nothing, as in choice (d), is unwise. Supervisors have an interest in knowing the problems employees are facing, and the employee is seeking a solution to his problem.

**True-false Questions.**—The "true-false" or "right-wrong" form of question is sometimes used. Here a complete statement is given. Your problem is to decide whether the statement is right or wrong.

Example: A person-to-person long distance telephone call costs less than a station-to-station call to the same city.

This question is wrong, or "false," since person-to-person calls are more expensive.

This is not a complete list of all possible question forms, although most of the others are variations of these common types. You will always get complete directions for answering questions. Be sure you understand *how* to mark your answers—ask questions until you do.

### Recording Your Answers

For an examination with very few applicants, you may be told to record your answers in the test booklet itself. Separate answer sheets are much more common. If this separate answer sheet is to be scored by machine—and this is often the case—it is highly important that you mark your answers correctly in order to get credit.

The International Business Machine test scoring machine is often used in civil service offices because of the speed with which papers can be scored. Machine-scored answer sheets must be marked with a special IBM pencil which will be given to you. This pencil has a high graphite content which responds to the electrical scoring machine. As a matter of fact, stray dots may register as answers, so don't let your pencil rest on the answer sheet while you are pondering the correct answer. Also, if your pencil lead breaks or is otherwise defective, ask for another. Since the answer sheet will be dropped in a slot in the scoring machine, be careful not to bend the corners or get the paper crumpled.

The IBM answer sheet normally has five vertical columns of numbers, with 30 numbers to a column. These numbers correspond to the question numbers in your test booklet. After each number, going across the page, are four or five pairs of dotted lines. These short dotted lines have small letters or numbers above them. The first two pairs may also have a "T" and "F" above the other letters. This indicates that the first two pairs only are to be used if the questions are of the true-false type. If the questions are multiple-choice, disre-

gard this "T" and "F" completely, and pay attention only to the small numbers or letters.

Answer your questions like this:

1. Assume that you are answering question 32, which is:

32. *The largest city in the United States is:*

- (a) *Washington, D. C.*
- (b) *New York City*
- (c) *Chicago*
- (d) *Detroit*
- (e) *San Francisco*

2. Choose the answer you think is best.

*New York City is the largest, so choice (b) is correct.*

3. Find the row of dotted lines numbered the same as the question you are answering.

*This is question number 32, so find row number 32.*

4. Find the pair of dotted lines corresponding to the answer you have chosen.

*You have chosen answer (b), so find the pair of dotted lines marked "b".*

5. Make a solid black mark between the dotted lines.

*Go up and down two or three times with your pencil so plenty of graphite rubs off, but don't let the mark get outside or above the dots.*

#### SAMPLE SECTION OF ANSWER SHEET

	T	F			
	a	b	c	d	e
31	:	:	:	:	:
	a	b	c	d	e
32	:	:	:	:	:
	a	b	c	d	e
33	:	:	:	:	:
	a	b	c	d	e
34	:	:	:	:	:
	a	b	c	d	e
35	:	:	:	:	:
	a	b	c	d	e
36	:	:	:	:	:

#### What Will Happen at the Test?

The day of the test is here and you have the test booklet in your hand. The tempta-

tion to get going is very strong. Caution! There's more to success than knowing the right answers. You must know how to identify your papers and understand variations in the type of short-answer question used in this particular examination. Follow these suggestions for maximum results from your efforts.

**1. Cooperate with the Monitor.**—The test administrator has a duty to create a situation in which you can be as much at ease as possible. He will give instructions, tell you when to begin, check to see that you are marking your answer sheet correctly. He is not there to guard you, although he will see that your competitors do not take unfair advantage. He wants to help you do your best.

**2. Listen to All Instructions.**—Don't jump the gun! Wait until you understand all directions. In most civil service tests you get more time than you need to answer the questions. So don't get in a hurry. Read each word of instructions until you clearly understand the meaning. Study the examples. Listen to all announcements. Follow directions. Ask questions if you don't understand what to do.

**3. Identify Your Papers.**—Civil service examinations are usually identified by number only. You will be assigned a number; you must not put your name on your test papers. Be sure you copy your number correctly. Since more than one examination may be given, copy your exact examination title.

**4. Plan Your Time.**—Unless you are told that a test is a "speed" or "rate-of-work" test, speed itself is not usually important. Time enough to answer all the questions will be provided. But this doesn't mean that you have all day. An over-all time limit has been set. Divide the total time (in minutes) by the number of questions to get the approximate time you have for each question.

**5. Don't Linger Over Difficult Questions.**—If you come across a difficult question, mark it with a paper clip (useful to have along) and come back to it when you've been through the booklet. One caution if you do this—be sure to skip a number on your separate answer sheet too. Check often to be sure that you haven't lost your

## PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

place and that you are marking in the row numbered the same as the question you are answering.

**6. Read the Questions.**—Be sure you know what the question asks! Many capable people are unsuccessful because they failed to read the questions correctly.

**7. Answer All Questions.**—Unless you have been instructed that a penalty will be deducted for incorrect answers, it is better to guess than to omit a question.

**8. Speed Tests.**—It is often better *not* to guess on speed tests. It has been found that on timed tests people are tempted to spend the last few seconds before time is called in marking answers at random—without even reading them—in the hope of picking up a few extra points. To discourage this practice, the instructions may warn you that your score will be “corrected” for guessing. That is, a penalty will be applied. The incorrect answers will be deducted from the correct ones, or some other penalty formula will be used.

**9. Review Your Answers.**—If you finish before time is called, go back to the questions you guessed or omitted to give further thought to them. Review other answers if you have time.

**10. Return Your Test Materials.**—If you are ready to leave before others have finished or time is called, take *all* your materials to the monitor and leave quietly. Never take any test material with you. The monitor can discover whose papers are not complete, and taking a test booklet may be grounds for disqualification.

### What Happens to Your Test?

Scoring procedures differ in detail among civil service jurisdictions, although the general principles are the same. Whether the papers are hand-scored or graded by the electric scoring machine we have described, they are nearly always graded by number. That is, the person who marks the paper knows only the number—never the name—of the applicant.

Not until all the papers have been graded will they be matched with names. If other tests, such as training and experience or oral interview ratings have been given, scores will be combined. Different parts of the examination usually have different weights. For example, the written test might count 60 percent of the final grade, and a rating of training and experience 40 percent. In many jurisdictions, veterans will have a certain number of points added to their grades.

After the final grade has been determined, the names are placed in grade order and an eligible list is established. There are various methods for resolving ties between those who get the same final grade: probably the most common is to place first the name of the person whose application was received first. Job offers are made from the eligible list in the order the names appear on it.

You will be notified of your grade and your rank order as soon as all these computations have been made. This will be done as rapidly as possible. Writing to the civil service office at this point may only slow things down. As soon as you know your grade and rank, however, you are welcome to ask questions about it.

All civil service jurisdictions want you to understand how their programs operate, and most will invite you to review your test papers. Usually this can be done during a specified time after notifications have been sent. Feel free to come in and give us an opportunity to explain any points which aren't clear to you.

### A Final Word

Remember that we are trying to select the employees best fitted for the government offices we serve. We want you to show us on this test what you know and can do, so that your abilities can be accurately measured. That's why we have tried to help you prepare for this test. Now it's up to you. Good luck!



# An Evaluation of the Predictors Used to Select Patrolmen

Jewel E. Mullineaux

RECENTLY the City Service Commission of Baltimore undertook a study to evaluate the techniques employed to select Patrolmen for the City Police Department—to show the relation between success in the examining situation and such factors as intelligence and age, and to show the relation between success in the examination and success on the job as indicated by achievement in the training school and as expressed in the evaluations of supervisors. The original study group consisted of 322 men and was selective in that it included only those men whose applications indicated that they had at least eight years of schooling and the large majority of candidates were veterans.

## The Examination

The basic examination was divided into two parts: the written examination conducted by the City Service Commission, and personal interviews conducted by the Chief Personnel Officer of the Police Department and his special examiners. Each part had equal value toward the final score. The Army General Classification Test, First Civilian Edition, International Business Machine Form, was the paper and pencil test used. The range of scores was from 0 to 125; the mean for the group was 78.12. The personal interviews were conducted by a three-man board which included the Chief Personnel Officer of the Police Department and two others selected by him. The Probst Personal Fitness Report was used as the standardized rating sheet. The range of scores was from 46 to 100; the mean for the group was 86.23.

The method of scoring was such that a candidate could fail either part of the examination and still pass the total examination provided his score was 70 percent of

the possible 100 points. The candidates who passed the written and oral duties were obliged to meet height and weight requirements as prescribed and to pass a rigid medical examination. A graded list was established showing the men in rank order, and the best qualified candidates were selected as Probationary Patrolmen.

## The Training Program

The training program of the Baltimore Police Academy was conducted by a police captain and his staff of two lieutenants and four sergeants. The training program calls for 440 hours of classes over a twelve-week period. Ideally, the class consists of between 35 and 40 men but in the situation being studied there were 50 men. The course of instruction consists of primary instructions of 34 hours, which includes rules of the Academy, local geography, public relations, etc.; criminal law, which includes 45 hours of instruction; general police procedures, which includes 95 hours of instruction; juvenile delinquency, which includes 4 hours of instruction; practical fingerprinting, which includes three hours of instruction; firearms training, which includes thirty-two hours of instruction; physical education which includes thirty-six hours of instruction, and a psychophysical and operating driving test which includes three hours of instruction. The remaining time is devoted to bi-weekly examinations which cover all subjects taught. The examinations are two-hour tests comprised of multiple-choice items, true-false items, a matching-type question, spelling, and a few short-answer questions that can be scored objectively.

At the end of the training program the men were rated numerically on the various subjects taught. Using the Pearson Product-Moment correlation method for determining validity, the correlation coef-

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ficient between the raw Army General Classification Test scores and the averages of the spelling marks was 0.56. Using the same method, the correlation coefficient between the raw Army General Classification Test scores and the scores received on report writing was 0.60. Using the same method, the correlation coefficient between the raw Army General Classification Test scores and the final scores received at the end of the training course was 0.66. Using the same method, the correlation coefficient between raw Army General Classification Test Scores and the final examination averages involving academic subjects only (spelling, police law, local geography, and other material which was learned from books) was 0.73.

### Work Assignments

At the end of the first three-month work assignment in a police district, rating forms were distributed to the Captains responsible for the 47 men so placed. The rating form was devised so that a man would have a final rating of "Unsuited for this work," "Might be adequate," "Should be satisfactory," "Endorsed with confidence," or "Endorsed with enthusiasm." These forms were distributed personally to the Captains. The meaning of terms and the manner in which the rating was to be done was explained in detail to insure as much standardization in the use of the form as possible. At the time of the first rating, no candidates appeared in the two lowest categories; thirty-five men were rated "Should be satisfactory," nine men were rated "Endorsed with confidence," and three were rated "Endorsed with enthusiasm."

At the end of six months, a similar rating sheet was distributed to the same Captains who were still supervising the same recruits. At this time no candidate was rated "Not suited for this work." One man was rated "Might be adequate," thirty-seven were rated "Should be satisfactory," and nine were "Endorsed with confidence." Of this last group, five had appeared originally at this level; four newcomers replaced the other four on the original list. All men who were rated "Endorsed with

enthusiasm" dropped to "Should be satisfactory" on the second rating. The Captains had retained copies of their first ratings. It is interesting to observe the characteristics of the patrolmen rated by the supervising officers as "Endorsed with confidence." The mean age was twenty-five years and eight months. The average schooling was completion of the ninth grade, although the mean Army General Classification Test raw score was 93; which would indicate that the candidate probably could have successfully completed high school. The mean score on the Personal Interview was 90. All the men were Veterans.

### Future Plans

Certain specific recommendations regarding the examination procedure for the selection of Patrolmen for the Baltimore City Police Department were made as a result of this study. It was recommended that:

1. The Army General Classification Test be retained as the test to measure the learning ability of the candidates. The correlation ( $r = .73$ ) between the scores on this test and the scores on the academic material studied in the Academy indicated that the Army General Classification Test is an adequate selection device for the factor of learning ability.

2. The personal interview be continued since it probably tested an area which is not included in the scope of the Army General Classification Test. This is indicated by the correlation coefficient of 0.46 between these parts of the examination. It was further recommended that although the rating sheet used appeared to be adequate, the rating scale should be revised since the number of men receiving above average scores seemed to be unusually high, and the mean for the group was 86.23 out of a possible 100 points.

3. A specific test of spelling be included as part of the qualifying procedure. It was evident that there was some correlation between intelligence and the ability to spell ( $r = 0.56$ ); nevertheless, many candidates of high intelligence did not spell well. There appeared to be an "x" factor which is not included in the scope of an intelligence test.

4. A test of penmanship be included as part of a qualifying procedure since illegibility was reported as a factor which resulted in inaccept-

able reports submitted by Patrolmen. This was learned from rating sheets submitted by supervising officers after the men were assigned to districts. Poor handwriting appeared as one of the greatest weaknesses of the Probationary Patrolmen.

5. The subject of report writing be studied further. The correlation between the Army General Classification Test and the scores received on report writing was 0.60. When the factors of spelling and penmanship have been isolated and studied separately, the correlation between the Army General Classification Test and report writing will probably be higher since the poor spellers and writers will have been eliminated. If this does not prove to be valid, it was recommended that another predictor for the ability to do report writing be established.

It was further recommended that since the written examination used purports to measure the ability to learn, it is prob-

ably not essential to require a minimum educational achievement except as might be used to narrow recruitment. Also age restrictions might be lowered or raised, according to recruitment needs since chronological age is a very artificial measure. It would probably be wise to introduce physical tests at the same time as the medical examinations are given.

In general, the techniques employed in the selection of Patrolmen for the Baltimore City Police Department appear to be fairly satisfactory. The men passing this examination did correspondingly well in the training school and later developed into satisfactory Patrolmen as evidenced by evaluation by supervising officers. Unusually high standards can be maintained in spite of the relatively low salary and difficult working conditions inherent in the position.

# Personnel Services for Local Government: The California Program

Kenneth Byers, John England  
and Robert Coppock

WHEREVER the merit system idea of sound public personnel administration has firmly taken hold, there is a constant growth of new agencies among all sizes of governmental organizations. This growth, however, poses a problem of finding sufficient numbers of technically qualified persons to staff all of the separate personnel offices. When such a situation developed in California about twenty years ago the longer established and better staffed personnel agencies decided they had a responsibility to assist the newer, smaller ones during their formative stages and to continue to provide services whenever the smaller agencies felt it was more economic or practicable to call upon the larger jurisdiction for supplementary technical personnel help than to try to do the work by themselves.

## Legal Basis for Help

In 1935, the California State Legislature provided that cities might adopt merit systems and made such systems feasible for even the smallest agencies by authorizing them to contract with each other or with any state department for the performance of personnel services. In 1939, a

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A number of states have worked out and established methods to help local governments carry out their personnel programs. This article describes the development and administration of the Cooperative Personnel Services administered by the California State Personnel Board. The services are provided only upon request; they are purely advisory; and furnished on a cost basis.

Subsequent issues of *Public Personnel Review* will carry articles describing other types of personnel assistance programs.

similar statute was enacted for counties. In enabling legislation applying to non-teaching positions in local school districts, the Executive Officer of the State Personnel Board was given authority with the State Superintendent of Education in designating membership on local personnel commissions so established. The Civil Service Act adopted in 1937 included the following provision:

The State Personnel Board may enter into agreements to make available its services and facilities, on request, to political subdivisions of the State and to State agencies excepted from the State civil service.

With this legal basis firmly established, there was still a gap to be closed. Even though several of the larger counties and cities had been operating merit systems for many years, there were scarcely enough trained and experienced people to staff these already existing agencies, let alone provide sufficient persons for the mushrooming new personnel programs of all sizes.

## First Kinds of Help Given

At this stage the responsibilities of the larger and longer established agencies to share facilities and to provide actual help was recognized. Los Angeles County early recognized the need to encourage and help smaller jurisdictions. Over many years now, Los Angeles County has served a number of its cities, not only over the full range of technical personnel services, but also the County Civil Service Commission acts as the hearing and rule making authority in some instances. It is interesting to record that among the very first agencies to request help from the State of California was San Diego County. Now, this County provides similar and even more comprehensive services to the newer, smaller agencies within San Diego County.

Each of these counties has developed distinctive patterns and modes of service, some of which were facilitated or required by the fact that they were located physically close to recipients.

The California State plan for providing cooperative technical personnel services to local jurisdictions has evolved into a distinctive organization and pattern of service. The earliest requests were for test materials to be loaned. However, it was soon apparent that in many cases complete written tests were also needed. These first tests were scheduled along with regular state examinations and did not interfere with state needs since the volume of requests was relatively small.

The local examinations were assigned to regular state examiners by related occupational groups. One person was designated as the liaison between local contracting agencies and the state in this activity. He also performed all the non-examination work for which he had time such as advice on rules, development of record systems, performance ratings, etc., and was soon performing request surveys for the establishment of classification and salary plans. All of these local services soon grew to a point that, owing to the wartime shortage of trained personnel technicians, a serious question arose whether these activities, although reimbursable, were interfering with the regular responsibilities of the Personnel Board to provide services to state agencies.

#### Program Reactivated After World War II

In 1942, following a short period during which no services were provided, a number of local agencies requested the State Personnel Board to re-establish the services on a basis which would not interfere with state operations and yet provide the desired services to local government. This was the origin of the present organization known as "Cooperative Personnel Services."

Basic policies were laid down at that time which have governed the operations of this program ever since.

1. The State Personnel Board will comply with requests for technical services so

long as there is no infringement on the functions required by law of the Board.

2. A high quality of service must be rendered to the contracting agencies.

3. Such services are to supplement existing local facilities.

4. Services are to be rendered on an advisory basis only.

5. The program must be on a self-supporting basis at no cost to the state.

In 1942 the program was operated by 1 technician and 3 clerks. They provided services to several small agencies with from 150 to 500 employees each. Increasing numbers of requests for services were received, including requests from state agencies exempt from civil service. The major activity was the providing of examination services in connection with the County Merit System covering the welfare departments in California counties which did not have their own approved civil service systems. By 1946, over 50 agencies were being served, not including the County Merit System, and the program required 4 technicians and 6 clerical employees.

The postwar period resulted in salary and personnel problems for all types of business, and the business of government seems to have been no exception. Along with the pressures occasioned by the upward spiral of prices, demands from employee groups for salary increases and a better salary plan, and the manpower shortage, an increasing awareness of the contribution modern personnel practices can make toward efficiency and economy took place in both private industry and governmental circles. Jurisdictions, which for years had been accustomed to setting salaries on a personalized, subjective basis and in which recruiting had been traditionally influenced by political advantage, felt the need for analysis of their personnel problems by an outside agency. Many such jurisdictions in California turned to Cooperative Personnel Services for assistance; and the program expanded to its present size of 8 full-time technicians, plus several part-time technicians, and a clerical staff of 11.

A large proportion of California's population is clustered in the southern part of

the state. The highest proportion of local merit system agencies is to be found there also. With the expansion of services by the state, certain mechanical and procedural problems inevitably arose between the local agencies in this area and the Cooperative Personnel Services headquartered in Sacramento, more than 400 miles away. In 1948, one technician was assigned exclusively to the Los Angeles area in order to provide a more continuous type of service. Early attempts to decentralize the construction and processing of examinations to this office raised a number of procedural questions. Recently, however, owing to the considerable expansion of activities in that area, a decentralization of examination services has been embarked upon in order to improve services both from the standpoint of time and quality. To agencies in this area, virtually the full range of technical services can now be provided directly from the area office rather than from the Sacramento headquarters.

#### Nature and Scope of Services Currently Provided

Examination services constitute the major activity. A complete recruitment and selection service is provided for the county welfare departments under the County Merit System in cooperation with the California State Department of Social Welfare.

Written examinations, administered by the individual local agency, represent the most common form of examination assistance requested. However, performance and oral examinations are also developed and administered.

Assistance is limited only to such portion of the selection process as the local agency cannot provide for itself, or believes could be more economically or more effectively provided by an outside agency. For example, scoring of examinations and recommending critical scores is a normal part of the service, but a number of local jurisdictions do this themselves.

Regular examination services are provided to over 60 local jurisdictions. In addition, a number of single requests from many other jurisdictions are received during the course of each year.

From time to time, a request is received to conduct a complete examination, including recruitment, for specialized positions. These are usually for department heads or the top executive positions, such as the Chief of Police, Director of Public Works, or the City or County Administrator.

Another large activity area is the preparation of initial classification and salary plans for agencies which previously have not had them and making reviews and re-surveys of existing classification and pay plans. These studies are by no means limited to jurisdictions with formal civil service systems. Indeed, there appears to be a steadily developing trend for local agencies to recognize the administrative value of a sound classification and pay plan, even though such agencies may not be favorably inclined toward a formal civil service or merit system. Each year such studies cover many jurisdictions and involve a total of several thousand positions. In addition to the original installation or review of such plans, a continuing responsibility is felt to assist such agencies to achieve the greatest effectiveness of the plans. Often, as an outgrowth of such surveys, the local jurisdiction will recognize the need for a qualified person to maintain the classification and pay plan.

Occasionally, assistance is requested in the preparation or review of proposed personnel ordinances, rules, and regulations, or in the development of personnel forms and procedures. Technical advice may be requested on a variety of personnel or merit system problems.

In addition to services provided to local agencies, some state agencies exempted from state civil service have requested assistance, such as in recruitment and examination for unclassified positions, particularly those of top level. Some state agencies that have a working relationship to local jurisdictions have called upon Cooperative Personnel Services for assistance in the personnel administration phases of studies they have made. Examples would be the preparation of personnel standards for local recreation personnel and for the personnel of local assessors' offices and the development of a



basis for classifying and compensating certain personnel in offices of County School Superintendents.

### Agencies Served

Cooperative Personnel Services will assist all local government jurisdictions in California, including all types of special districts as well as cities and counties. Services have been provided to jurisdictions with as few as 7 employees and with as many as several thousand employees. Classification and salary studies over the past thirteen years have been performed for nearly half of California's counties and over 60 cities, school districts, and other special districts. In many of these jurisdictions, as the need arises at periodic intervals, resurveys are requested so that the plans may be brought up to date. These agencies have requested assistance for a variety of reasons: They have no facilities of their own for such work; they have insufficient facilities for a particular project; they want an outside viewpoint on a particular situation; or they find it more effective, or just as effective but more economical, then providing the service themselves.

### Basis of Charges

The services to be rendered to a local jurisdiction are set forth in a contract between the State Personnel Board and the jurisdiction. Usually, an estimate of the cost involved is given to the local jurisdiction in advance. In order to determine these costs and charges and to assure that all state expenditures will be completely reimbursed, a formula was developed by state accounting experts to recover direct labor costs and indirect costs, such as overhead expenses.

Staff members prepare daily time reports showing the time spent on each specific project, including time spent in activities which are not properly allocable to any one project, such as employee supervision and training and the performance of certain administrative and office activities. The formula provides for the distribution of this unallocable time to all agencies served.

Each month the cost of work performed is determined for each agency, and bills are submitted. Payments received from the agencies are returned to the general fund to offset the expenditures of Cooperative Personnel Services. The program operates under regular state budget procedure and controls, except for the reimbursement feature.

The determination of costs and equitable charges for the preparation of examinations is considerably more complex than for other services. This is because of cooperative sharing among the agencies of the original developmental costs of examination material, which has usefulness for more than one agency and for more than one use. Various types of unit charges have been developed in supplement to the normal charges to meet this problem of equity to the local agency, while at the same time providing reimbursement for costs incurred.

### Comments on Experiences

After 13 years of experience under the present organization approach, certain points deserve some comment.

First, any agency going into this kind of program will find that it is not a one-way street. There are certain reciprocal values not readily apparent. Examination experiences and materials developed for local purposes in such fields as police, fire, recreation, and public utilities may be readily adaptable to central agency use. Salary data can be added to the files of the central agency from sources which would not ordinarily be contacted for general central agency purposes. In endeavoring to meet their particular problems, local agencies have developed ideas and techniques which may be adapted to the central agency operations and which may not as readily come to the attention of the central agency. Through the many and varied local contacts, the base is widened for an understanding of the personnel principles and practices used by the central agency.

Certain advantages appear to accrue to a program operating under separate organization status. It is possible to operate without impairing the central agency



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functions; and if it is desired that services to local government be reimbursed, it is much easier to identify costs. A separate organization tends to develop technicians who become thoroughly familiar with the operations, personnel problems, and needs of local agencies. The carry-over of this background knowledge from one local agency to another has proved valuable, not only in quality of results achieved but also in acceptability to local officials and employees of staff conclusions. The adaptation of classification and salary concepts and materials to meet local needs is facilitated. A separate organization permits the establishment of priorities for meeting local agency needs without conflict or particular relation to central agency needs.

Regardless of organization structure used, one of the more difficult problems to surmount is the development of enough knowledge of local situations and local classification plans when providing examination services, particularly if the services are performed from a point geographically distant. Various devices may be used to meet this problem, such as the establishment of branch offices, frequent field visits, and the use of various types of written communication materials.

While offering some problems and difficulties, there is much to be said for providing examining services to a number of public agencies from a central source. The developmental and research time which are so expensive for a single examination can be shared by the common use of the material by a number of agencies. Also, techniques can be developed to make substantial savings in the cost of clerical operations.

A program of personnel services to local jurisdictions, rendered on a reimbursable basis, can operate under normal governmental budget procedure. Any agency, however, contemplating such a program would do well to look into the advantages

in flexibility of operating under a revolving fund plan.

Under a reimbursable program, the local agency receives only those services it specifically requests and is willing to pay for; and there is no element of domination or control by the central agency. There are certain difficulties, however. To justify the development of the specialized facilities and personnel best qualified to serve the local jurisdiction, it is necessary that there be sufficient demand for such services, a willingness to pay the costs involved, and a reasonably continuous flow of requests. Although the very small agencies are often the ones most in need of assistance, the program must include some reasonably large agencies in order to provide a minimum volume of work. The alternative is a widely fluctuating work load requiring the employment of personnel for short periods and their subsequent separation or the use of such personnel on special central agency projects. Either of these latter two alternatives involves certain administrative and personnel complications.

The California Cooperative Personnel Services program has been most fortunate in that the examination program of the County Merit System and services rendered to certain large local jurisdictions has provided this continuity and minimum volume. This has made possible retention of sufficient staff to serve the smaller jurisdictions and, at the same time, provide necessary services to these large agencies at a reasonable cost to all agencies served.

There are many ways in which central agencies can assist local jurisdictions. The program of Cooperative Personnel Services has met the requests of local agencies in California and appears to be working successfully, both from the standpoint of the central agency and the local jurisdictions being served.

# Personnel and Civil Service Recommendations of the Second Hoover Commission

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ON July 10, 1953, the 83d Congress established a Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government. This Commission, like the Commission of the same name set up in 1947, was asked to study and assess the manner in which the Executive Branch of the federal government carries on the functions with which it is charged and to recommend changes the Commission believed would improve administration. Since Mr. Herbert Hoover served as Chairman of both of these Commissions, they are popularly known as the "First" and "Second Hoover Commissions."

On February 14, 1955, the Second Hoover Commission submitted to the Congress its recommendations with respect to executive management and the career service of the federal government. Because of the interest this phase of the Commission's work will have for public personnel people, the Civil Service Assembly is publishing the specific actions the Commission believes should be taken in the near future in order to improve federal personnel policies and thereby promote efficiency, economy, employee morale, and the attitude of citizens toward their government. *Review* readers will find it interesting to compare the Hoover Commission recommendations with those made by the American Assembly in the Fall of 1954. Both of these groups were composed of eminent citizens with long and varied administrative experience in both government and private industry. The American Assembly report was published in the January, 1955, issue of *Public Personnel Review*.

The full report of the Hoover Commission, as well as the report of the Personnel Task Force which undertook the basic research for this aspect of the Commission's work, can be obtained from the U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. "The Report on Personnel and Civil

Service Prepared by the Task Force on Personnel and Civil Service" costs 75¢. "Personnel and Civil Service, a Report to the Congress by the Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government" costs 40¢. These reports provide background information and the reasoning on which the recommendations which follow were based.

## Additional Noncareer Executives Needed

### Recommendation No. 1

(a) Career administrators, as rapidly as possible, should be relieved by the noncareer executives of responsibility for advocacy or defense of policies and programs and should be kept out of direct participation in political controversies. This recommendation is in no way intended to restrict Congress in obtaining information from any employee of the Government.

(b) Additional competent noncareer executives should be worked into management organization at the departmental level to help carry the work-load, assist the secretaries and assistant secretaries in improving their control over and grasp of departmental business, and take over the political tasks formerly handled by many career administrators. Political appointees should not be placed in the line of command below career administrators. Obviously, such appointments undermine the line of command and make the position of career administrator untenable.

## Clearer Division Between Noncareer and Career Administrators Needed

### Recommendation No. 2

We recommend that the President designate the positions which should be in the noncareer category and that he use the following criteria to determine positions which should be in this category:

(a) All positions filled by Presidential

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appointment, with or without confirmation by the Senate;

(b) All positions having vested in them statutory authority or executive delegation of authority requiring the incumbents to make final decisions in the establishment of governing policies, programs, objectives, and in the enunciation of principles which will control the action of subordinates in the implementation of the foregoing;

(c) All positions, the duties of which require the incumbents to act publicly in advocating new policies and in justifying or defending the governing policies or the basic principles or philosophy which controls their department or agency policies. Such duties would include direct participation with, or representation of noncareer executives in public debate, evaluative discussions, and justifications of departmental policies, programs, or activities.

(d) Most positions of a personal and confidential nature, such as personal aides, confidential secretaries, and personal chauffeurs. Non-career executives may, of course, continue to employ career people in such positions.

### Recommendation No. 3

We recommend that the Civil Service Rules establishing the schedules of positions exempted from the competitive civil service be modified to provide for four schedules as follows:

(a) Schedule A should include all positions, except those under schedules C and D below, which, from time to time, the Civil Service Commission determines it is not practicable to fill by examinations, either competitive or noncompetitive.

(b) Schedule B should include all positions, except those under schedules C and D below, which the Civil Service Commission determines it is not practicable to fill by competitive examinations. Appointments to these positions shall be subject to such noncompetitive examinations as may be prescribed by the Commission.

(c) Schedule C should include all positions which the President, on nomination by department or agency heads, exempts from the competitive civil service on an in-

definite basis because the incumbents perform duties of a personal and confidential nature such as junior personal aides, confidential secretaries, or personal chauffeurs to noncareer executives. (See criterion (d) in Recommendation No. 2 above.)

(d) Schedule D should include all positions which the President on nomination of department or agency heads, exempts from the competitive civil service because their incumbents perform the functions listed in criteria (b) and (c) in Recommendation No. 2 above.

### Need To Increase Compensation of Top Managers

#### Recommendation No. 4

We recommend that Congress authorize salary increases for the Government's top managers (career and noncareer) as a practical means of securing and holding competent men in public service.

### Need To Review Laws Requiring Employees To Divest Themselves of Personal Investments, Industrial Pensions, and Other Such Rights When They Accept a Federal Position

#### Recommendation No. 5

We recommend that the President and the appropriate committees of the Congress review the conflict of interest laws to determine whether the intent of such laws can be better achieved by other and more positive means which would encourage rather than discourage entry of competent men into public life.

### Need To Establish a "Senior" Civil Service

#### Recommendation No. 6

We recommend that the Congress authorize and the President establish a Senior Civil Service composed of highly qualified, politically neutral career administrators nominated by their employing agencies and appointed after careful selection by a bipartisan Senior Civil Service Board with the consent of the President to serve in positions agreed upon by the Board and employing agencies. Such senior civil servants should have status, rank, and salary vested in them as individuals so that they may be

employed in a flexible manner in career positions throughout the Federal service.

**Training After Appointment Needed To Develop Technical, Professional, and Managerial Skills of Employees**

**Recommendation No. 7**

We recommend that except for special skills, training should be systematically conducted by the agencies themselves, and that training should count heavily as a factor in the promotion of employees.

**Changes Needed in Classification and Compensation Systems**

**Recommendation No. 8**

We recommend that:

(a) The grade structure under the Classification Act of 1949, as amended, be simplified. Grades GS 1-6 should be combined into 3 grades, and Grades GS 7-11 should be combined into 3 grades. Positions would then be allocated to 6 grades in this range rather than to 11. No change is proposed in the higher grades, except that many employees in positions now classified at GS-15 and up would be absorbed into the Senior Civil Service with its own pay schedules based on personal-rank status.

(b) A genuine classification of postal employees should replace the misleading system of payment according to meaningless titles. The grade structure should be simplified to bring it in line with the proposed general classification plan; and eventually postal employees should be brought into the general classification structure.

(c) To provide coordination among the multiplicity of wage-board systems, a definite statutory basis for payment in accordance with prevailing labor-market rates should be established, and the Civil Service Commission should be authorized to study such pay systems and to establish general rules and regulations (a) for classifying the positions to be paid at local rates, and (b) for determining local prevailing wages.

(d) The Civil Service Commission and the appropriate Committees of the Congress review the positions now under the Classification Act to determine whether additional positions might in the interests

of economy and efficiency be paid under local wage board arrangements.<sup>1</sup>

**Personnel Needs of Government Need To Be Better Publicized**

**Recommendation No. 9**

We recommend

(a) A recruiting program including:

1. Continued efforts to improve the character and distribution of announcements;

2. Adequate public information programs;

3. Expansion of college recruiting—under Civil Service Commission leadership but with full agency participation;

(b) Vigorous and continued efforts by the Civil Service Commission and the employing agencies to improve examinations. Such efforts should include:

1. More open continuous examinations which can be taken by candidates at any time;

2. Validation of tests and employment standards to make sure that they really measure the qualities needed.

**Changes Needed in Examination and Appointment Procedures**

**Recommendation No. 10**

We recommend that:

(a) More use be made of interviews, and interview techniques be improved;

(b) Junior professional examinations, especially Junior Management Assistant examinations be improved;

(c) The Civil Service Commission be authorized by law to allow appointing officers greater leeway in selecting personnel by permitting them to make their selection from among five certified eligibles rather than three (the present rule) except in appointments to lower grade positions and the postal field services.

(d) The Commission make full use of its authority to substitute category rating e.g., "outstanding," "well qualified," "qualified," "not qualified" for numerical rating

<sup>1</sup>See John Bamberg, "The Second Hoover Commission on Position Classification and Pay," page 98.

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of the qualifications of applicants for certain higher scientific, technical, and administrative positions.

(e) The Commission allow more flexible use of registers of eligibles between Civil Service Regional areas.

### Performance Rating Should Be Adjunct of Supervision, Not End in Itself

#### Recommendation No. 11

We recommend that:

(a) The present performance rating system be abolished;

(b) A new system be established under which the supervisor reports at least once a year *only* on those:

(1) Employees with potential capacity for further development and higher responsibilities;

(2) Employees deserving meritorious awards;

(3) Employees miscast in their present assignments and who should be reassigned to other work and/or retrained for other work;

(4) Employees undeserving of periodic pay increase because of unsatisfactory service (employees not so designated would receive their increases in due course);

(5) Employees requiring dismissal.

(c) In each case the supervisor should submit in writing to his superiors the reasons for his judgment and specific suggestions as to action desired.

(d) The right to appeal adverse decisions under the new system should be limited to one appeal to higher authority in the agency.

### Changes Needed in Procedures for Handling Dismissals and Appeals

#### Recommendation No. 12

We recommend that:

(a) A veteran's special right to appeal to the Civil Service Commission be limited to the first 5 years after appointment to the service. At the completion of the 5-year period the veteran would revert to the regular appeal procedures now available to nonveteran employees.

(b) When the Commission accepts appeals, it should confine its review to a determination as to (1) compliance on the part of the agency with the procedural safeguards provided by law; (2) whether there is some evidence to support the decision which the employee is appealing. It should not try to substitute its own judgment for that of the agency head in any matter relating to the proficiency of employees. In this and all other appeal situations it should rule in favor of the agency head unless there is clear evidence of bad faith on the part of the agency head toward an appellant or failure to meet procedural requirements.

(c) Agencies confine their dismissal procedures to the simple provisions of the Lloyd-LaFollette Act.

(d) Each agency train its supervisors to handle disciplinary problems properly and delegate removal authority to the lowest practical management level.

(e) The probationary period be used more systematically and vigorously to screen out inadequate employees. Supervisors should be required to sign a written statement vouching for the adequacy of employees before they pass out of probationary status.

(f) Supervisor's handling of dismissals and inadequate employees should be emphasized in evaluating supervisor's performance. Evidence of slackness or indecision should count heavily against the supervisor.

### Need To Modify Regulations Governing Reductions in Force

#### Recommendation No. 13

We recommend that reduction-in-force procedures based upon section 12, Veterans' Preference Act, be modified to provide:

(a) That a system be established which divides competing career category employees into three groups: (1) Veterans with compensable service-connected disabilities; (2) all other veterans, and those nonveterans of 15 or more years Federal service; and (3) all other employees.

(b) That in calculating Federal service



each full 6 months of military service during time of war or extended military action shall count for 1 year of civilian Federal service; each year in which a civil service employee received a meritorious or outstanding service award shall be counted as 1½ years of civilian Federal service. For purposes of determining service in this case, employees who hold status may include their total years of nonstatus service, providing that such service immediately preceded their acquisition of status. Military service should not in this case be considered an interruption of service.

(c) That in layoffs the order of retention be as follows:

(1) Veterans with compensable service-connected disabilities shall have preference over all other competing employees. Where disabled veterans are competing against each other, the one with the highest number of retention credits (as calculated in the manner prescribed above) shall have preference.

(2) Veterans with competitive status having no compensable disabilities shall have preference in layoffs over all other employees except disabled veterans with compensable disabilities and nonveteran employees with status and with 15 or more years service. A veteran with competitive status who has no compensable disability may replace a nonveteran status employee with 15 or more years service, only if he has an equal or greater number of retention credits (as calculated in the manner prescribed above).

(3) Nonveteran employees with competitive status shall have preference over all employees without status. When such nonveteran employees are competing against each other, the employee with the highest number of retention credits shall have preference.

(d) That no employee, except veterans with compensable service connected disabilities, who has less than 5 years of service (calculated in the manner prescribed above) shall have reassignment ("bumping") rights in reductions-in-force.

(e) That as soon as adequate records shall have been developed under the new

performance evaluation system recommended elsewhere in this report, reduction in force rules should be further modified to permit higher retention credit for those employees recommended and approved for further development and higher responsibilities.

#### **Need for Coordination Between Civil Service and the Several Independent Merit Systems**

##### **Recommendation No. 14**

(a) Groups of positions which presently are excepted from the competitive civil service, such as positions overseas and in the Territories, should to the extent possible either be brought within the competitive service and filled by open competition, or they should operate within special merit systems designed to meet the particular needs of these groups of positions.

(b) The Presidential Adviser on Personnel Management should be empowered to examine the operations of all personnel systems outside of the regular civil service. Any shortcomings in the operations of such systems should be reported to the President for such action as he desires to take. True independent merit systems should be recognized and certified as such by the President.

(c) Persons who have served satisfactorily in a recognized Federal merit system outside the civil service should receive status and thereby be eligible for transfer to a competitive job under the Civil Service Act. Correspondingly, legislation governing personnel systems outside of the civil service laws should be modified to permit persons with civil service status reciprocal rights under other certified merit systems. People who have served the Federal Government under a true merit system should be available for use anywhere in the Government.

#### **Need To Take "Politics" Out of Appointment of Certain Groups of Federal Employees**

##### **Recommendation No. 15**

We recommend that the President direct termination of political clearance of eligibles for appointment as rural letter carriers.

## PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

### Recommendation No. 16

We recommend that United States marshals and field officials of the Bureau of Customs and the United States Mints be brought under the civil service and "positions" should be filled by departmental appointments in lieu of the present method of appointment by the President.

### Need To Codify Civil Service Laws

#### Recommendation No. 17

We recommend that:

(a) The Civil Service Commission, with the Bureau of the Budget, undertake a codification of the laws and orders affecting Federal personnel management.

(b) These agencies prepare a report to the Congress on changes in legislation which the codification indicates are necessary to clarify and simplify existing laws, eliminate duplication, and clarify lines of authority.

(c) Congress enact the necessary legislation, as indicated, to effectuate the codification.

### Need for Some Reorganization of Responsibilities of the Civil Service Commission

#### Recommendation No. 18

We recommend that the Civil Service Commission:

(a) Expand its research activities as a

basis for developing improved basic standards and guidelines under which the Commission delegates its authority to departments and agencies and provides assistance to them;

(b) Continue to expand the delegation of operating functions (subject to its standards) to the departments and agencies;

(c) Emphasize vigorous, realistic, and reasonably frequent inspections in order to assure compliance with the principles of the civil service laws and regulations, and the standards established by the Commission under which it makes delegations of authority to the departments and agencies. Such inspections should insure strict adherence to all statutory provisions for veterans' preference and maintenance of the merit principle in Federal employment. The Commission should be authorized to charge the costs of repossessed functions to the agencies from which they are temporarily recovered.

#### Recommendation No. 19

We recommend that:

Departments and agencies delegate as much authority (subject to suitable standards) for individual personnel actions as is possible to lower operating levels. Agency personnel offices should be free to concentrate on positive personnel management, research, training and executive development, and manpower planning.

# The Second Hoover Commission on Position Classification and Pay

John Bamberg

THE Hoover Commission's Task Force Report on Personnel and Civil Service makes the point that "concepts, and also underlying ideas (of classification and pay administration) need to be reconsidered frequently and at times revised"; and that "the task force has come across a number of practices which are ripe for official review."

Those of us in operating personnel offices trying to make the federal classification and pay systems work can readily agree. We can only regret that the Task Force did not carry their point to its logical end in their discussion and recommendations on classification and pay matters.

For example, the Task Force notes a trend toward a greater number of grades. It associates this with a compression of pay differentials between grades. The discussion concedes that the compression is also caused by pay adjustments with rising minimum pay without corresponding increases in the maximum pay. But it then disregards this cause in recommending a reduction in number of grades as a cure for both conditions.

The reasoning which leads to this recommendation is not complete nor perhaps wholly accurate. True, the original grade scale ran to only CAF-14; grade CAF-15 (and CAF-16, unused in normal practice) was added in 1928; and the "super grades" of GS-16, 17, and 18 were added in 1949. However, the grades of CU-1 and SP-1 with pay rates below CAF-1 (or GS-1) were dropped. The net gain is less than the three "super grades." Furthermore, the addition of these super grades was accompanied by a raising of the pay "ceiling" and served to relieve the compression of many jobs of different difficulty level previously lumped into top CAF-15 and P-8

grades. These super grades were also designed to recognize the increased complexity of government work over the relatively simple government service of 1923.

The recommendation to reduce the number of grades also gives inadequate weight to the true cause of the trouble—that is, to the fact that the pay spread between grades has been destroyed by successive *unplanned* pay adjustments. The pay differentials in the original schedule of 1923 (not analyzed in the Report, nor compared with the present schedule) provided a realistic progression of pay by grade. But the successive adjustments have been without Civil Service Commission guidance. They have consistently resulted from employee agitation for delayed raises and have been arrived at by bargaining and compromises on the floor of Congress. At no time has the Civil Service Commission presented to Congress a pay adjustment constructed in recognition of the principle of maintaining a planned or reasoned pay progression.

Nor does the Task Force Report make a recommendation now for such a review of the pay structure, relying rather upon an oversimplified formula of combining two grades into one to attain a greater pay spread. This solution ignores, among other things, the fact that when *present employees with their present step-in-grade pay rates* are lumped into fewer grades, then the *number of different rates of pay within grade is doubled*. The writer does not hold that this is necessarily bad—rather, the point being made here is that this multiplicity of pay within grade makes nonsense of the concept of equal pay for equal work, if indeed each of the combined grades can still be considered as covering work of equal difficulty from its lower to upper range.

Perhaps one should say makes *more* nonsense of the *shibboleth* of equal pay for

• John Bamberg is Assistant Regional and Classification and Wage Officer, Region 2, U.S. Bureau of Reclamation.

equal work; for that concept has already suffered violence. It suffers by such regulations as that which permit demoted employees to retain former pay; by *automatic* within grade pay increases moving the incompetents up along with the competent; and most violently by the recent amendment which permits increased hiring rates for hard-to-fill classes. This amendment positively supplants the so-called principle of equal pay for equal work with the principle of pay according to supply and demand. Furthermore, this principle of supply and demand is already firmly a part of the federal pay systems for "blue collar" jobs; and the Task Force recommends its further extension into present Classification Act positions.

Yet, despite all this, the Report uncritically reaffirms the principle of equal pay for equal work in the discussion, identifying it as "the goal—and it is a very proper one" of the classification and pay systems.

Is not this one of the "concepts and . . . underlying ideas" which "need to be reconsidered . . . and at times revised"?

The Task Force recommendation to reduce the number of grades ignores other practical problems. Some "series of jobs" best lend themselves to definition of a few levels of difficulty and with broad differences in pay level. Other "series" are naturally "compressed." The total range of difficulty is relatively narrow, and the only means of recognizing differences in level is to define small differences. Yet these differences are significant and important in management and personnel considerations.

The pay schedule in the original Act of 1923 recognized this problem in two ways. First, it provided the four Services (CAF, P, SP, CPC) which permitted different sequences of grades and pay for different series of work. Second, it provided "single" grade spreads for some series and "double" spreads in others, as for example, CAF-5, 6, 7, 8, and 9, corresponding paywise with P-1, 2 and 3.

The combination of these four Services into the General Service (GS-grades) in the Act of 1949 was purportedly to *consolidate* grades (the opposite of the so-called "trend" toward more grades noted by the Task Force). It was also intended to solve

the problem presented by the first provision above—the difficulty of determining into what Service a job series belonged—whether a series was professional, sub-professional, clerical or administrative. It did not solve that problem; and the Civil Service Commission is still busily engaged in trying to categorize the different series, as is evidenced by the recent reprinting of a portion of the *Handbook of Occupational Series* to insert the single word "professional" into a number of series definitions. It did not solve the problem because the variety of work in the federal government is too great to lend itself to so pat a formula as is implied in the idea of a single General Service.

Likewise, this variety of work does not lend itself to compression into so few grade levels as is recommended by the Task Force. Gradations in levels are multiple; and more importantly they are real and must be recognized and dealt with in any practical working pay system.

The crux of the problem then is not how many gradations are needed, but how to fit real gradations into a predetermined and rigid grade scale on the basis of a "grade definition." Every operating supervisor can, and does, define the progressive difficulty levels of similar jobs in his operation; and he can relate the pay value of those levels to similar jobs and levels in the labor market. This makes sense in his practical working situation. What does not make sense are gyrations and mental gymnastics of classifiers who attempt to equate engineers to supply officers, or to equate both to an arbitrarily defined grade GS-9, or to say that his position is worth a set pay because it falls into a "grade" equal to dissimilar positions which fall into the same "grade."

These are the activities of the classification and pay functions which discredit them with management; the conditions which permit the Task Force to say with accuracy that "classification of positions . . . has become overly elaborate" and "classification and pay administration are very laborious processes of management."

But the Task Force report apparently does not "reconsider" the "concepts and underlying idea" of a fixed grade scale.

Why retain the grade designations at all? Why not limit the *classification* process to defining levels of difficulty within job series (using as many levels or as few as are appropriate to that series); and limit the pay determinations to fixing the proper pay for each series (without strain as to what series represents "equal" work to any other series) by whatever pay criteria are appropriate to that line of work in that market (whether a locality wage or a government-wide pay as is appropriate in each case)?

There is ample precedent for considering such questions. Nearly every other classification system in the country, whether

private industry, municipal or state, operates without such fixed grades. The idea of a predetermined grade scale for classifying positions (as distinct from a progressive schedule of pay rates) is unique to the federal system. It was copied, and subsequently discarded, by others; but its use is now limited almost exclusively to Classification Act positions.

We would like, then, to see the Hoover Commission carry its study on to such fundamental concepts and ideas as that embodied in the grade system; in short to review the federal classification and pay plan in its entirety rather than to recommend further patchwork changes.



- What is the thinking of experienced personnel people on everyday problems of personnel policy and practice? Their views can often provide readers of *Public Personnel Review* with cues to sound, constructive policy-making.

The editors have posed the same question to several experienced public personnel officials and have asked them to comment on the various points it raises. Here's what they say.

### The Question . . . .

*If it can be said that personnel people have any typical shortcomings, what do you think they are, and how can they be overcome?*

### The Replies . . . .

CLIFFORD N. AMSDEN, formerly Secretary and Chief Examiner, Civil Service Commission, Los Angeles County (Retired Fall, 1953).

Can it be said that public personnel people have any typical shortcomings? What are they? How can they be overcome?

It's comparatively easy to compile a list of faults or things done the wrong way in the public personnel field. But it's quite another matter to pick *typical* shortcomings—much less set forth the remedies.

However, looking back over the years there are *two* shortcomings which I believe are typical and upon which I should like to comment:

1. The fixed belief that all supervisory and executive personnel in operating departments are set to defeat the public personnel department's program.
2. The lack in public personnel people of what might be called "the inquiring type of mind."

Let's look at my first contention. This attitude stems, of course, from the belief that public personnel people are crusaders; they exist to fight the "spoilsman"; and "spoilsman" in flesh and blood exist in every operating department, ready to take every (unfair) advantage of the personnel man.

This you say is a relic of the dark ages and not supported by facts. Ha! Go into any public personnel department today, including the most successful, the most progressive, and you will find a generous sprinkling of personnel people who give lip service to the modern thinking which places the personnel department as a staff agency, an efficient tool of management, but who in every action they take try their best to thwart the personnel program of the operating department. Some of these personnel people become frustrated and upset when they are unable to uncover some skulduggery on the part of operating department officials.

In many instances, the personnel people will point out, in defense of their position, a list of examples of action by operating department personnel which seem to them to justify their position. In other cases, it probably is just the way they have been trained and directed to act.

It is pretty difficult to set forth in a few words a way to overcome this attitude. But I suppose that one step is to get this type of personnel person into the habit of making periodic appraisals or analyses of his work program . . . his successes . . . his failures . . . his attitude toward operating departments and their personnel problems. Another possible method is to try to accept the operating department's problem as a challenge; to adopt the positive view point instead of the negative. Pigors and Myers in their book *Personnel Administration* bring out this point in the following paragraph:

When the personnel administrator faces opposition from lower line officials, his task is to educate them. But he can only succeed in this if he is seen by the company officers or supervisors as a source of help, and not as a threat. He must first attempt to help the supervisor with his problems as he sees them, not as the personnel man thinks he should see them. The personnel administrator can then help him develop the skills to handle future problems in the same manner. This is developing the full responsibility of personnel administration in the line organization.

By the adoption of such an attitude and such

a program the personnel man will not only benefit himself and the public agency in which he operates; he will also make a valuable contribution to progressive public personnel administration.

Now, let us look at my second contention that many public personnel people lack an inquiring mind. Most public personnel departments are overloaded with work and understaffed. Under such conditions, it is only natural that the personnel technician gets bogged down by routine. It's hard to see in every assignment—a challenge. It's much easier to see it as just another job. It's easier to say "But this is the way we've always done it," or "We've never done that before," than to question "Why are we doing this?" "Why are we doing this, this way?"

It's hard, under such circumstances, to set yourself an extra task—15 minutes, 30 minutes a day—to read "What's going on in my line," *Public Personnel Review*, *Personnel Administration*, and other magazines and books. Especially when such material raises questions in your mind about the direction public personnel administration is taking . . . the new theories . . . or are they new? . . . of the responsibility of "line management for personnel." . . . the relationship of personnel management to top management.

It's hard, under such circumstances, to enroll in college courses in Human Relations . . . Management . . . Personnel Management.

It's hard, under such circumstances, to realize, that ours is a young profession . . . that personnel administration is not static but is constantly developing . . . that personnel functions and activities are developing, changing, improving day to day.

But it's much harder—in the long run—to sit back and do our day-to-day chores in the same routine way and see the other fellow accept the challenge, get the promotion, and have the thrill of being a part of what Peter Drucker in his book *The Practice of Management* calls "A pivotal event in social history." He says:

The emergence of management as an essential, a distinct and leading institution is a pivotal event in social history. Rarely, if ever, has a new basic institution, a new leading group, emerged as fast as has management since the turn of the century. Rarely in human history has a new institution proven indispensable so quickly.

CHARLES H. CUSHMAN, Personnel Administrator,  
State of Rhode Island.

Public personnel people are finite beings. They are human and, therefore, subject to all the frailties of humanity in general. I believe it

would be difficult, if not impossible, to isolate a particular shortcoming and to demonstrate with any degree of validity that it is "typical" of public personnel people or even more pronounced in this group than in others.

If however, the question is intended to evoke a discussion of difficult areas in which our progress is less satisfactory than in others and to invite possible remedial steps, there is much to be said.

Certainly, there is no area in governmental operations in the United States where pressures and counter-pressures are more severe or constant than in personnel. Because it is our job to establish rank-order eligibility of other humans for public employment and because this rank-order rarely coincides with the desires of elected officials and party leaders, our operations are subject to continued criticism—much of which is unjust.

It is equally true that those who believe that patronage is essential to party success in office and at the polls will continue to be loud in their denunciation of rules and regulations which prevent unearned and undeserved benefits for their friends. We like to believe that the spoils system has been defeated. Certainly it has been repulsed and reduced in effectiveness. We would be naive indeed, however, were we to permit ourselves to indulge in the belief that the fire has been completely extinguished.

Let us look briefly at the Washington scene. The annual turn-over in the U.S. Government's civilian employment is roughly half a million. The press has recently published a complaint that there were not enough patronage jobs available to the party of the present administration because most of the jobs vacated are covered by civil service.

We have seen the removal of many positions from civil service classification to be placed in a special "policy-making" schedule. The latest revision of the federal civil service establishes a "career-conditional" type of appointment which is, in effect, an extension of the probationary period to three years. The general effort seems to be directed toward removal of civil service protection from the higher and lower employments and to leave the middle levels as a career service. Since most civil service jurisdictions in the United States follow the lead of the federal system, we may look for similar proposals at the state, county, and municipal levels.

Now let us look at the recruiting picture. We find shortages in the supply of doctors, nurses, psychiatric workers, therapists, teachers, public-health workers, technicians, social workers, engineers, and others. We are told that our na-

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tional survival is endangered should we fall behind Russia in scientific and technical achievement. We are concerned about the possibility that our armed forces might not remain adequate. Should we feel less concern with regard to scientific, educational, medical, or technical fields where inadequacies will render the efforts of the armed forces futile? Many openings for such employees exist in all levels of government. Recruiting is falling below the demand. If the higher levels are reserved to patronage, thus precluding the possibility of advancement in a real career service, it must follow that government will not be able to attract sufficient numbers and that those who are recruited will leave to accept more satisfactory employments when they are available.

The challenge here, of course, is to our entire population. It involves our educational institutions, our welfare groups, and our industries. It may require governmental aid to promote and help finance action which will result in sufficient numbers of adequately trained people to meet the shortages.

We, in public personnel work, are well aware of the truth of the foregoing. I believe it may be a general shortcoming that we fail, as individuals and as a group, to take adequate, positive action to effect improvement. I refer, of course, to a sound, coordinated public relations program which will inform the public of these and other facts they should know in order to make known their desires as to corrective measures. Such a program might be developed in conjunction with others in educational, scientific, and technical fields in order to demonstrate the need for a solution to the problem of encouraging young men and women to become interested in these fields and to offer some assurance that something more than a dead-end job awaits them if they prove capable.

Those who do not subscribe to the merit-system idea may be sincere. However, if it can be adequately demonstrated that a failure to protect the governmental services from those who would impair or destroy the career feature may result in an inadequate civil defense and may even imperil our existence, enough people will make their feelings known to influence those in power to subordinate their partisan preferences to popular demand for good government.

Conscription is restricted to military needs. The problem of directing our young people into the fields of short supply is more complex. It is one which requires the development of an integrated program and may require a substantial contribution by government to assure success.

The primary action required is, in my opinion, a presentation of the problem and of the basic causes of disinterest in the fields affected. These facts, plus the hazards involved through failure to find a remedy, can be demonstrated by the public relations program recommended. It is my sincere belief that the people of this country, once in possession of this information, will insist that necessary action be taken to provide solution.

The type of program I envision is not one of jurisdictional level. It is nation-wide. We, in the hustings, can report the results of our own research, but the collation of data and the overall determinations must be done on a wider basis. Possibly the Civil Service Assembly might be the medium through which a committee could be appointed from the groups concerned. Such a committee could study and make recommendations which might lead to improvement, thus demonstrating that  $P + R = PR$ .

GEORGE T. JACKSON, Assistant Deputy Minister,  
Department of Public Works, Canada.

Public personnel people are clannish. Only under pressure do many of them participate in mixed interest groups associated with their work. Even then they enjoy isolation to discuss their own interests. Again, within themselves, they divide into personnel-interest groups. Are they afraid to face the comments and criticisms of others?

Public personnel people generally belong to two groups and two types of organizations: (1) those in a Personnel Division providing the personnel service to an operating agency or department; (2) those in the Central Personnel Agency (persons engaged in recruitment, classification and related personnel services.)

Let us look, first, at those who deal directly with the operating heads of departments or agencies of which they are a part. These personnel people are really on the firing line. They occupy the role of staff advisers. Personal likes and dislikes are almost certain to develop in this relationship because of the inherent differences that exist in humans, whether they be new juniors or the more senior officials.

Honesty in word and deed is a vital factor in the success of the departmental personnel officer. Honesty regardless of the difficulties or the personalities concerned. A full complement of reasonably well-satisfied, steady, industrious personnel is a key to the success of most operating units. No administrator should feel that he cannot believe or depend on those he works with and above all those who provide him with personnel services. If he loses confidence in the

honesty and integrity of the personnel unit, essential close relationships will become ever-widening gaps and ultimately fall apart.

To be effective, personnel staffs must have complete familiarity with the operations and operating problems of the branch or agency they serve. Rotation of key personnel between the personnel unit and the operating units is practical and can do much to improve knowledge, work understanding, and internal relationships.

Personnel officers should take every opportunity to participate in agency and inter-agency functions. At these they should make it a point to associate with operating officials and to stay away from fellow personnel workers. The recognition and acceptance of personnel officers as part of the working team will go a long way towards breaking down the barriers that exist at present.

There is always a danger and a tendency for personnel employees to grow into paper pushers or worse, paper delayers, or to turn the personnel unit into a post office between the operating agency and the central personnel agency. If any of these things happen, it is obvious that the departmental personnel unit cannot fulfil its duties and has failed to appreciate its responsibilities.

The central personnel agency, known in a great many jurisdictions as the "civil service commission," is responsible for recruitment, selection, appointments, classification and related centralized personnel matters. The central agency is even more exposed than the departmental to the danger of being the home and haven of paper manipulators since it is farther removed from the real needs of the operating departments. Recognition of the requirement of "service" can become obscure.

The personnel officer in the central personnel agency must have a better than average sense of service and responsibility. Shortages of staff in the various government services or lack of prompt action towards providing replacements may result in land, sea, or air disasters; may effect the general health and welfare of the nation or vital matters of defence. The personnel employee in the central personnel agency must appreciate the responsibility for providing service to prevent these dangers and the responsibility associated with serving the State. He must deal with requests for staff replacements, transfers, promotions and changes in classification, etc., with understanding and expedition.

Although an employee of the Central Personnel Agency, he should know intimately and have a complete appreciation for the responsi-

bility carried by the agency or agencies he serves and make himself familiar and closely associated with the work and staff. He should take each request as a personal responsibility and give the same attention, care, and service as if the request were from the head of his own agency. He should give the kind of service that he would expect or insist on if a member of his own personal staff resigned or was absent for any period of time. Within the maximum latitude of the laws and regulations he should make every possible attempt at solving the operating units' personnel problems.

Here, too, rotation of staff between the central personnel agency and other agencies is not only possible, but highly desirable. Such experience will help employees develop a wider interest and better understanding of the need for "service." The operating head of an agency and his senior officials must be made to feel that while the central personnel agency representative has a responsibility under some official, legal or legislative provision, act or regulation, he is, at the same time, with his intimate knowledge of the agency requirements, providing the kind of service he would give if he were a member of that agency. Until this kind of service from the central personnel agency can be given, there will always be criticism, dissatisfaction, and demands by the operating heads for legislative or legal action to provide change or release from controls. Personnel officers should strive to attain the reputation with operating agencies that they understand their problems; willingly take responsibility; give service; and are honest, fair, and just.

This is not to suggest that the personnel officer has always to agree with other agency representatives or do anything that is contrary to the regulations under which he works. However, too many personnel people use the laws and regulations to hide behind; to justify delay or lack of action. Too many do not even apply good common sense. All regulations and laws intend the application of good common sense in public personnel administration. Rules and regulations were made to facilitate the day-to-day work. We should not find that we are slaves to and working for the "rules and regulations" as our masters.

All of those in the personnel field should be of a special kind of temperament and keep a clear, well-balanced mind. They are dealing in people, personalities. So many pass through their hands and the days are full of problems. Every problem is caused by one of these "persons." Each case must not be looked upon as a "problem"; rather it is a new challenge to ability, a new adventure, a new human interest

story. But within all this, keep to the main purpose. Special educational or training studies in how to understand and deal with the "human factor" may make you a "specialist" and then your egotistical belief in your superior knowledge of the specialty may result in your forgetting its original purpose—the employee. You must concern yourself about the individual when interviewing him for possible appointment, and once appointed he must always be your concern, perhaps your problem. He, too, depends on you to look after his interests and to be fair with him. You cannot "wash your hands" of his case once he has been appointed to some unit in your government service.

Given an assignment or request for personnel action of some kind don't divide the procedures up so that the case can be lost. See it through to the finish. Don't leave parts to others to clean up or finish while you seek new interests and new fields. Today there are so many new developments in the personnel field that workers in this great broad field are always in danger of forgetting the basic essential: successful operation of the personnel unit or agency.

Study to understand and perform your job better but beware of the danger of becoming a "specialist" or a "technician." Aim to become a "human" generalist in the field of public personnel administration. This is a most difficult role to fulfill—demanding and exacting, and one that calls for unusual qualities and a sense of service and responsibility.

Personnel officers say they believe in the merit system for all public services and the idea of a central personnel agency to carry out recruitment, maintain classification plans, and be responsible for other related centralized personnel activities. If these ideas do not advance or are forced to take a backward step, even in any part, instead of moving steadily forward, the responsibility for this retrograde step, this failure, must be placed entirely on the shoulders of the personnel officers and those who are their supervisors in the central personnel agency.

O. C. LOTT, Vice-President, The Clifton Corporation, a management consulting firm.

It has always appeared to me that public personnel people could advantageously take or find time to learn a lot more about the operating programs they service. This is not to say they generally know *nothing* about these programs, since of course some such information

is absorbed in the daily work by at least the process of osmosis. However, too often such knowledge is extremely superficial and so broad that it has little or no practical use. While they cannot be expected to be "experts," most could learn and understand a great deal more without danger of being accused of trying to dig too deep.

Public personnel people, in some cases I have known, have not compared favorably with their staff level associates—such as the budget, management, procurement, legal, and accounting personnel in the matter of operating program knowledge. The fact that even some position classifiers fail to understand accurately and clearly many facets of their operating programs has been particularly surprising to me at times. However, this may only serve to reveal how obtuse and obscure are the administrative orders, functional statements, and position descriptions from which the classifier usually operates. Furthermore, information the classifier obtains verbally in the job allocation climate is more apt than not to fill his head with ambiguous and over-generalized concepts and fuzzy outlines of program details.

These shortcomings of knowledge show up in many ways. All too often the public personnel specialist, partly in fear of revealing this ignorance, will lose an important moment of advantage to avoid any detailed or technical discussion of the operating programs he represents. The ability on the part of any personnel representative to speak with accuracy and assurance about these matters is undoubtedly a valuable asset in many situations. Civil service commission personnel see this weakness almost daily as personnel specialists coming from the agencies to discuss operating personnel problems feel obliged to bring "operating officials" along to answer even the simplest of program questions.

Public personnel people also fall very short in this regard when the comparison is made with the personnel specialists in private companies. Part of the reason why private company personnel people usually are more intimately familiar with the details of their company's operations lies in the fact that they very often have themselves come up through the operating ranks. It is a common practice in private industry to create personnel specialists and personnel directors "by proclamation" rather than by training and development. A branch manager, sales manager, or salesman, purchasing agent, regional supervisor, etc., often becomes the employment manager or personnel director overnight simply because someone is needed for the job and he or she "likes people." While



such individuals are often woefully at sea for a long time, it is not because they do not know or understand what is going on in their company, and why and how. It is only because they don't know anything about the personnel business—a handicap apparently not difficult to overcome.

A further and very significant factor contributing to the personnel office's program ignorance is the steady growth of the practice of using administrative aids and administrative assistants. Very often taken from the secretarial ranks, these special assistants are set up by operating offices to "handle personnel matters," and to perform "related administrative duties." In these situations the personnel office staff, sometimes up to and including the personnel director, is reduced to communicating with operating officials only *through* an administrative representative, who is too enmeshed in the details of "housekeeping" functions to devote much time to program matters.

Thus cut off from daily, or even very frequent, contact with the program people those in the personnel office become more and more withdrawn into their ivory towers. One of the most serious aspects of this situation is being insulated from the vibrance and inspiration of firing-line operations. As a result the personnel people tend to lose much of their enthusiasm for the work, and to care little whether or not they are giving the operating people all the help they could.

The public personnel man or woman who is looking for a way to get to know the operating programs will reap big dividends by the use of two effective devices: (1) By making it a point to regularly lunch with operating people rather than personnel associates, and on such occasions to talk mostly operations and not personnel. (2) By seeking invitations to sit in on a selected number of regular operating staff meetings.

The classification, recruitment, training, or employee relations specialist who thinks he knows the programs and personalities he serves will soon see how very much he didn't know if he tries this for six months to a year. The latter suggestion of course immediately raises the point "but we're always terribly busy and how could we find the time?" The busiest of us can find some time to do the things *we* consider important enough. An hour or two a week spent in operating program staff meetings can be made up if necessary by working a little extra or a little extra hard. There is no better way to a larger share of the psychic rewards of working for a living than to get close to the people, pro-

grams, and problems for which one is consuming very valuable days of his life.

OLIVER C. SHORT, formerly Personnel Director, U.S. Department of Commerce (Retired, Fall, 1953).

A satisfactory contribution to a discussion on this subject makes necessary an understanding of the nature of personnel management. It is trite and almost platitudinous to say that personnel management is an integral part of the job of the operating executive at the organizational level under consideration. However far apart the acceptance of this idea as a theory and its practical application may be, the philosophy is basic to this discussion. Personnel management is a part of the job of the operating executive and he has full responsibility for it. The administration or the carrying out of the various phases of this part of his job may be delegated to a personnel administrator, who has no operating authority and only delegated authority for staff activities.

The personnel administrator, therefore, brings nothing to the job so far as its content is concerned. The content is in the job of the operating executive. The personnel administrator contributes skills, procedures, knowledges of the tools, processes, laws, rules, regulations and practices of which the executive may have no or but little familiarity and doesn't need to have if he has a competent personnel staff to which he can delegate responsibility.

Without any intention of being repetitive, it is basic to this discussion to say that the personnel officer (administrator) contributes nothing to the content of the job. He applies the "know-how" to facilitate the fulfillment of the requirements of the content. Successful organizational operation depends upon the degree that the executive can, and does, delegate the doing of the staff activities. The degree that he can delegate depends often on the competence of the staff officers. The degree that he does delegate depends on knowledge of proper organization and his willingness or unwillingness to receive staff aid. Lack of competence of staff officers is a common shortcoming of personnel people and can be overcome only by better selection, proper work incentives, and training—both pre-entry and post-entry. Another shortcoming of staff officers is an overzealousness to put more in the job than belongs there . . . to usurp prerogatives that rightfully belong to the executive . . . to dabble in operating matters, taking on line activities and giving orders to line operators. This fault can be overcome only

by working in the framework of a staff officer . . . supplanting arrogance by a due sense of modesty . . . working in the interest of the executive with a willingness to let the executive have credit as well as to carry responsibility for the blame.

Some time ago I sat in the office of the personnel director of a large private organization and witnessed an arrogance of attitude that I never thought possible in a modern organization. He summoned to his presence three heads of departments of the firm and gave them directions on matters that rightfully belonged only to the responsible operating officials. The matters upon which the personnel director gave orders were not staff matters. They were line or operating matters; matters on which only the plant manager should have given orders. I could not but reflect upon the job of the plant manager. Either he was delegating actions that he should not delegate or the personnel director was usurping authority that could not rightfully belong to him.

A well-known city manager in a public address in which he was describing the duties and responsibilities of a city manager said: "Of course it becomes necessary from time to time to call in the Personnel Officer to discipline; even to 'fire' an employee." How dead wrong he was! No one but the executive should discipline or fire an employee. The personnel officer may be called in to advise the executive how to discipline, even fire an employee in accordance with the laws, rules, regulations, or labor contract. He should not perform the act himself or be willing to have it done in his name or position. His proper advice to his executive is that the job is his, and his alone. Whenever staff and line get into conflict over operating matters, staff loses—as it properly should. One of the greatest contributions a personnel officer can make to his organization is to foster and build up in the line operators a due sense of their responsibilities, including an appreciation and understanding of the proper relationship between operating officers on the same and on different levels of organization and with staff officers.

The best philosophy for personnel people to have is to carry on their activities in such a way that if the ultimate could be reached they would have worked themselves out of a job. If personnel people adopted this philosophy, the result would be a constant expansion of their activities, a broadening of their horizons. The executive would gain an increased span of interest; a keener sense of proper organization; a knowledge of proper relationships; and a fuller sense of the meaning of

delegated authority, both staff and line, at all organizational levels.

The personnel officer should not be required to serve in a position or capacity that makes it necessary for him to render an administrative or quasi-judicial opinion for or against any officer or employee of the organization. His function is investigative and advisory. He is staff aid to both management and employee, but a representative of neither. He should aid an executive in taking administrative action against an employee, to see to it that no law, rule, regulation, contract, or recognized good practice has been violated in such action. He should be equally zealous to aid the employee concerned to reply to charges upon which the action is contemplated; to see to it that the reply is in accordance with law, rule, regulation, contract, and good practice. He should not represent either management or the employee in any hearing or litigation on the charges or be a party to the decision.

DONALD J. SUBLETTE, Secretary and Chief Examiner, Civil Service Commission, Detroit, Michigan.

It is my opinion, based on almost thirty years of observation, that the professional personnel workers in public agencies compare very favorably not only with other professional groups in the public service but with their counterparts in private industry in terms of qualifications, productivity, attention to duty, and the many other characteristics that make up a good professional public servant. There are, however, two criticisms, or rather two shortcomings, that I have frequently observed not only on the part of my own staff but that of public personnel people throughout the country.

The first of these is a general criticism not only applicable to public personnel people but to all public employees and to the employees and officers of large-scale business and industrial enterprises. This criticism may be summarized as "the Bureaucratic Approach." I suffer from this shortcoming myself. In fact, I have seen nobody who is sincerely interested in his job and his agency and who is trying to do a good job who does not suffer from this shortcoming. The better workers in all walks of life believe that their jobs are important and with this belief they fall into the natural error of assuming (in most cases subconsciously) that their work and their agency is the heart or key not only to the public service but to the industrial, social, and political life of the coun-

try. I know of no remedy for this shortcoming and extreme measures would only result in a complete destruction of the morale and effectiveness of the persons involved. However, it is helpful occasionally to remind oneself that there are other important agencies of government besides the civil service commission; that there are other important social and economic activities apart from the public service; and that the real effectiveness of one's work is the extent to which it contributes not only to the effectiveness of the whole organization of which it is a part but also to the entire social and economic structure of the country.

The second shortcoming is more particularly found among the professional people working in public agencies. It may generally be described as a feeling of inferiority and a feeling of persecution. I do not mean to imply that these are personality inadequacies of the individuals; rather, it is an institutional reaction. I feel quite strongly that there is no basis for the feeling of inferiority although there may be considerable evidence of objective factors contributing to the feeling of persecution. It is my personal opinion that both of these feelings originated in the early history of the civil service movement and have persisted almost unabated to the current time. The bases for these feelings may be summarized in the following clichés: "Civil service is a necessary evil," "Civil service examinations are unsatisfactory but they are the best method we know of up to this point," "Nobody loves a policeman," and similar statements. These attitudes expressed by politicians, citizens, businessmen, public administrators, and governmental employees have been, at least subconsciously, accepted as true by most professional public personnel people. Actually, none of these statements is wholly true. To the extent they are even partly true, they are also true of other professional and occupational groups. Certainly the professional problems of public per-

sonnel administration are as successfully handled as are the problems in most other professions, including the two most widely accepted professions of law and medicine. It is true that public personnel workers are by no means doing a perfect job. It will require many years, even centuries, of research and study before perfection is even closely approached. This, however, is also true of all other professional groups and definitely should not lead to a feeling of inferiority on the part of personnel practitioners. If personnel workers were not continuously improving their techniques and were not taking advantage of the various scientific advances, a feeling of inferiority might be deserved, but I'm sure that this is not true.

The feeling of persecution and the persecutory acts which strengthen this feeling stem, I believe, from the feeling of inferiority. It is human nature to "pick on" those who believe themselves inadequate. This furnishes both amusement and ego-building activity to the person doing the persecuting. I have coupled these two aspects together feeling that they result from the same cause and have the same cure which I believe to be the following:

An objective appraisal of other professional fields and an historical study of the developments in the personnel field itself should convince the average person that both in terms of social accomplishment and in terms of professional content of personnel activities, the personnel field is a worthy and well developed profession. Having convinced oneself that this is true, the next step is to convince others by words and deeds that it is true. Personnel workers are frequently too timid in advancing their own merits and their own contributions to the development of the government and the public service. A lot more forthright salesmanship and even aggression will do much to change this attitude.

the

## bookshelf

The feature is possible because of the cooperation of the U.S. Civil Service Commission. This bibliography on training programs was prepared by the staff of the Commission's Library under the direction of Mrs. Elaine Woodruff, Librarian.

### Planning and Developing Training Programs

Biggane, Robert J.

How we determine training needs. *Personnel journal*, vol. 29, no. 1, May 1950, pp. 13-16.

Practical method for determining just which subjects should be taught through use of an opinion poll.

Boaz, Robert S.

How to identify training needs. *Journal of the American society of training directors*, vol. 8, no. 2, March-April 1954, pp. 23-25, 89.

Lists some of the problems encountered in trying to identify training needs and discusses general methods followed by many training directors, consultants, and operating executives in offsetting problems of this nature.

Civil service assembly of the United States and Canada. Committee on employee training in the public service.

*Employee training in the public service*. Chicago, 1941. 172 pp.

Comprehensive survey of subject including sections on ascertaining the need for training and defining the role of the central training unit.

Crow, Richard R.

An organized approach to training. *Personnel*, vol. 23, no. 6, May 1947, pp. 446-452.

A nine-step procedure to be followed in developing a training program, stressing the importance of reviewing the plan with key supervision and top management.

Dunbar, James C.

Surveying training needs. *Personnel*, vol. 25, no. 3, November 1948, pp. 225-231.

Techniques and questionnaires used by one company in planning its training program.

Dunbar, James C.

The training director's manual. Los Angeles. The training association of Southern California, 1948. 99 pp.

The role and functions of the training department, duties, responsibilities and qualifications of the training director; how to set up a training program and programs of representative companies.

Hausrath, Alfred H.

Guiding principles of training in the federal service. Personnel administration, vol. 8, no. 9, May 1946, pp. 1-4.

Guides for management and training officers in organizing and developing effective training programs.

Hogan, Ralph M.

Work sheet for planning an overall training program. Personnel administration, vol. 7, no. 10, June 1945, pp. 7-8, 17.

Hogan, Ralph M. and Fern L. Hull

Making effective training plans. Personnel administration, vol. 6, no. 3, November 1943, pp. 20-23; Personnel, vol. 21, no. 2, September 1944, pp. 97-103.

Careful planning needed to make training efficient and worthwhile to the student and instructor. Includes sample work sheets on planning a training project, planning a training session, and planning a conference or discussion meeting.

Houseknecht, A. H.

Who needs training—and why. Personnel, vol. 26, no. 4, January 1950, pp. 283-293.

How to analyze training needs and set up a program in the areas where it is most needed.

Joint college-federal service council for Southern California.

General methods of determining training needs. Los Angeles, 1953, 7 pp.

Outlines the why, who, what and how of determining training needs.

Lindahl, Lawrence G.

How to build a training program. Personnel journal, vol. 27, no. 11, April 1949, pp. 417-419.

Brief outline of steps in developing an adequate training program.

Maguire, Dewitt.

Essential elements of an effective over-all training program. Public personnel review, vol. 13, no. 3, July 1952, pp. 110-116.

Identification and description of nine basic factors which are essential to an effective training program.

Murphy, M. J.

How to start a training program from scratch. Factory management and maintenance, vol. 109, no. 6, June 1951, pp. 126-131.

Forty hints drawn up by the Northern Ohio chapter of the American society of training directors.



## PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

### U.S. Bureau of reclamation.

Guide to employee training. Washington, 1945. 17 pp. (Employee training bulletin no. 1.)

Includes: Eight questions and answers for consideration in establishing employee training programs as a part of the management plan; guides for establishing an employee training program; and suggested training programs.

### U.S. Civil service commission.

Evaluating your personnel management. Washington, U.S. Govt. print. off., 1954. 88 pp. (Personnel management series no. 6.)

Chapter 6: Employee development. Includes evaluation procedures for identifying workers who need training in order to determine type of program needed.

### U.S. Department of the air force.

Summary of proceedings. Conference on civilian employee and career development, October 4-7, 1954. Washington, 1954.

Includes reports on the role of Command Headquarters in the training program, and the coordinated use of civilian personnel office resources to implement the employee and career development program.

### U.S. Department of the army.

Getting ready to train employees. Washington, U.S. Govt. print. off., 1953. 17 pp. (Civilian personnel pamphlet no. 41-B-53.)

Covers the planning a supervisor must do and the actions he should take to prepare for organized job training where more formal and intensive instruction is necessary.

### U.S. Department of the army.

Training needs and how to find them. Washington, U.S. Govt. print. off., 1953. 17 pp. (Civilian personnel pamphlet no. 41-B-51.)

Points out the need for job training and suggests sources and methods through which specific needs can be located and defined.

### U.S. Veterans administration.

Staff development training guide. Washington, 1949. 76 pp. (V. A. Training guide TG 5-3.)

Chapter 2: Determining training needs; Chapter 3: Selecting and developing content.

### Weber, Charles S.

The role of the personnel agency in in-service training. Public personnel review, vol. 10, no. 4, October 1949, pp. 206-209.

Stimulating training activity, making facilities available, providing training and evaluation listed as major functions of personnel agency in field of training.



## Book and Pamphlet Reviews

**Fear, the Accuser.** Dan Gillmor. Abelard-Schuman, 404 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y., 1954. 308 pp. \$3.00.

This latest book on Congressional Investigations is an account of what has actually transpired at the hearings of Congressional Committees investigating subversive activities, factually reported from the transcript of the testimony. To a lawyer, one who by reason of his background, education and profession is a firm believer in the moral sanctity and practical necessity for due process in all proceedings of even a semi-judicial or fact-finding nature, this is at times most disturbing, indeed almost frightening, reading.

It has long been apparent that the newspaper reports of the Congressional hearings have often been more sensational than accurate. At least they have been more prone to play up the sensational aspects of the investigations, especially the accusations made against important or newsworthy people; whereas usually the answers of those accused are not reported verbatim. Sometimes even the actual result or outcome of a particular inquiry is relegated to an obscure back page because it lacks the appeal to the general reading public of the first sensational charges.

The author has attempted to permit the facts to speak and to tell the story, and to allow the reader to draw his own conclusions, not only of what actually did happen, but of what the results of these investigations of subversive activities have been to date, and what they will probably be in the future.

Dan Gillmor, the author, a reporter and free-lance journalist, was born in Washington, D.C., the son of a U.S. Navy Admiral. He started his writing career as a reporter under the late O. K. Bovard, the Managing Editor of the *St. Louis Post-Dispatch*. He has spent much of his time writing political articles for newspapers and magazines. During World War II he served in the U.S. Air Force as a pilot, following a brief period in 1940 as editor and publisher of the magazine *Friday*. Following the war he became editor of *Survey Graphic*.

The title was taken from a speech of Edward Livingston made in Congress in 1798, in opposition to the Alien and Sedition bills, which excerpt is set out verbatim on the dust cover. The words of Mr. Livingston, there quoted at some length, appear to your reviewer to be equally timely today.

Mr. Gillmor gives us a short historical background of Congressional inquiries, stating that there are at least two universally accepted reasons for Congressional investigations, namely,

to enable Congress to carry out its "watch-dog" functions over Government spending and the execution of the law, and to obtain information with regard to laws which need enactment. There is much less agreement he states on the third "justification for investigations," a comparatively new one, which asserts that Congress has an "information function" or "disclosure function," that is, a duty "to inform the American people," whether or not the information in question would, or could, lead to legislation.

He devotes some pages to earlier Congressional investigations, beginning with the bitter period just before the Civil War late in 1859, when the Democrats, led by Senator James M. Mason of Virginia, investigated John Brown's raid at Harper's Ferry, although he had already been tried, found guilty of treason and murder, and hanged.

From this early investigation of "Abolitionists, Socialists and Red Republicans," there was a hiatus of some seventy-eight years, lasting until after World War I, during which there were no Congressional inquiries, although, as the author points out, during that three-quarters of a century the country survived armed rebellion, panic, major and minor wars, and a great depression.

Mention is made of the Senate "Beer and Bolshevism Committee," which shortly after World War I, under the chairmanship of Senator Lee S. Overmann of North Carolina, investigated the German brewing and liquor interests and "Bolshevik Propaganda" in this country.

The author credits this Committee with developing a new investigating technique, since in its report it referred for the first time to the testimony of *unnamed* witnesses who appeared at *secret* sessions. The best known and most famous special investigating committee of the House was created in 1938. It was called the "House Special Committee on Un-American Activities," and it has been investigating ever since.

Mr. Gillmor does not go into great lengths in telling the story of this Committee's endless inquiries, but the few pages devoted thereto are most illuminating.

The greater part of this book, however, is concerned with the recent investigations of subversive activities, in the main since the Republican Party assumed office in 1953. Considerable attention is given to the activities of the Velde Committee of the House, with much quotation from the testimony of some of the more interesting witnesses who have appeared before it, and including its attempt to investi-

gate several well-known members of the cloth.

Mr. Gillmor devotes a whole chapter to "the double standard in the hearing room," showing the difference in the conduct of Congressional investigations in questioning a witness who is expected to, and does, testify in the way that the committee wishes, and in questioning an accused or suspect witness. He shows by apt quotations how the "friendly" witness is listened to with rapt attention and afforded the greatest consideration, while the "unfriendly" witness is frequently interrupted with accusations of guilt, threats of citations for contempt and inferences that he is a liar. The examples given are interesting and illuminating, although not amusing. The short shrift accorded to attorneys for witnesses under the rules is also noted.

The quoted comment of Dean Erwin N. Griswold of Harvard Law School with regard to the "double standard" seems unusually appropriate. "I think it fair to say that a large section of the public has from time to time felt 'a sense of injustice' with respect to some of these hearings. . . . A failure to appreciate the intimate relation between sound procedure and the preservation of liberty is implicit . . . in that saddest and most short-sighted remark of our times: 'I don't like the methods, but, . . .'"

The author devotes some time to the "Fifth Amendment" problem, showing the origin and reason for the stricture against self-accusation.

In an effort to explain why a witness is in some instances forced to refuse to answer and to seek the protection of the Fifth Amendment on the ground that his answer may tend to incriminate him, Mr. Gillmor utilizes two chapters to illustrate the hypothetical case of a "Mr. Smith" and his appearance before a Senate investigating committee. This fictitious case he states is based on discussions with attorneys who have represented witnesses summoned before investigating committees and others who are expert in Constitutional law. To your reviewer, however, these chapters are not convincing in seeking to establish the premise that it is almost a necessity for an innocent man to thus refuse to answer unless he is willing to run grave risks of a possible contempt citation and a possible perjury trial, and is able to spend large sums of money for a legal defense.

The remaining chapters, especially those concerned with Mr. Jenner's subcommittee on "Internal Security," the record of the Brownell-Hoover hearing with regard to Harry Dexter White, and with other telling quotations from transcripts of various hearings, speeches, etc., are much more interesting and educational.

One cannot help but receive the very strong impression from reading the transcripts that the members of the investigating committees and their counsel and staff are much more interested in publicizing themselves and in keeping their names prominently in the headlines than they are in protecting the government or the people of the United States from subversives.

The author points out that the committees appear to be constantly attempting to force or persuade the witness to give them names of persons suspected or believed by the witness to be Communists or Communist sympathizers, or "fellow travelers." The methods used in questioning, the double- and treble-barrelled questions, containing accusations, innuendoes and insinuations clearly indicate, as the *Washington Post* is quoted as commenting, that the committees apparently regard as subversive any and all opinions of which they disapprove. A well-known Bishop, in defending himself from an attack by Mr. Velde's committee, is quoted as suggesting that it "is using methods that in ordinary parlance would be called blackmail."

A favorite phrase of committee chairmen which appears frequently throughout the hearings is: "The record will speak for itself." As Mr. Gillmor points out, however, the distinguished chairmen find it necessary frequently to "lend the record their verbal assistance." When the wheat of truth is sifted from the chaff of suspicion, unfounded accusation, innuendoes, and insinuations, usually little or no wheat is left. But reputations of men and women, thanks to a sensational press, fall left and right.

This book serves a signal purpose in pointing up the fear-breeding atmosphere extant today, and in calling for a rebirth of a desire to be free, "free to choose whether we will govern ourselves or be governed by the purveyors of fear." The author is correct in reminding us that "it is for us to determine by free discussion and association the destiny of our beloved country. To exercise these powers, to perform these duties requires courage today, but America cannot remain the land of the free unless she is also the home of the brave." NORMAN BIERMAN, *Attorney at Law, St. Louis, Missouri.*

**Workmen's Compensation.** Herman Miles Somers and Anne Ramsay Somers. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, N. Y., 1954. 340 pp. \$6.50.

Around a personnel office, at least, it ought to be safe to presume that people know a good deal about workmen's compensation. There is

a persistent procession of bulletins, instructions, suggestions, and regulations. There are cartoons. There are posters and placards. There are slogans, some pat and neat, some laborious, all sincere. There are investigations, hearings, sketches, graphs, studies, surveys, and reports. There are meetings, discussions, interviews, seminars, conferences, and conventions. There are tabulations of injuries and days lost—the bleak recording of the accidents that didn't get prevented. Again, it should be reasonable to assume that what might not be known about matters of compensation, locally and nationally, could be readily learned: all its significant processes, from accident reports to cancelled checks, are necessarily matters of record. But this book promptly demonstrates that both presumptions are generous: considering its size (some 400,000 persons receive compensation each week) and cost (an estimated \$1.3 billion a year) and broad social impact, workmen's compensation is not well understood nor widely known. In trying to find out what had happened to the compensation program in this country the husband-and-wife authors had to write this book—a book which goes a long way in supplying the lack of pertinent assembled data and organized appraisal of the total subject which was so curiously lacking when they undertook their inquiry.

Compensation statutes have been in force almost fifty years and thus earn the distinction of being our oldest social security program. But the necessity of a workable method for alleviating the bereavement, suffering, and harsh want produced by industrial accidents and death is rooted deep in the Industrial Revolution and the Machine Age. In this perspective, and in the perspicacious scrutiny of actual achievement provided by this study there is small room for complacency. We have taken a long time to come a very short way.

While the massive hazard to worker life and limb inherent in the modern industrial complex made some system of prompt and uncritical benefit mandatory, only the reversal and abandonment of centuries of legal precept made the recompense procedure we take for granted today possible. In the field of law, the acceptance of the principle of "liability without fault" was fully as revolutionary as the assembly line or the development of atomic power. The power of this principle cannot be overestimated; it is the foundation of the whole compensation structure. The common law concepts of negligence or tort liability which it replaced only yesterday, as it were, were disarmingly simple and plausible, and ruggedly

endurable. Under these concepts the only recourse at law available to the injured worker or his bereaved family was a civil suit against the employer. Even if the employee were willing (to risk his job) and able (had the money) to come to court, the legal cards were overwhelmingly stacked against him. He had to establish that he himself had been negligent in no particular, that no fellow employee, no matter how remote from the scene, had been negligent, and that the mishap lay in no inherent risk concerning which he should or could have known, and which he accepted by taking the job. A formidable array. No wonder that not more than one of eight suits succeeded, and that, in a sort of moral atonement, the occasionally successful case won resoundingly high judgment. First attempts to make the legal contest more equal were the employer liability laws which were aimed simply to dispossess the employer from his common law defenses. They were some help, but not much. Liability actions still had to thread the labyrinth of formal civil suit; the net results for the worker plaintiff were unimpressive. Early in the century a host of federal and state investigative commissions reached substantially the same conclusion: the whole existing concept of industrial liability must be swept away.

"Workmen's compensation, the new body of law designed to supplant the common law and employers' liability statutes, involved an entirely new economic and legal principle—*liability without fault*. It abandoned the moral and legal concept of individual fault as a basis for public policy. The cost of industrial accidents was socially allocated to the employer, not because of any presumption that he, or the corporation, was responsible for every accident which affected the employees, but because industrial accidents were recognized as one of the inevitable hazards of modern industry. The costs were, therefore, a legitimate cost of production."

Besides the issue of personal blame, the new system determined to eliminate other grievous conditions and frustrations born of tort liability concepts. These shortcomings are well identified in terms of their opposites, which became the fundamental objectives of workmen's compensation:

1. Predetermined, adequate, and prompt benefits.
2. Elimination of wasteful litigation and legal fees.
3. Certainty of payment.
4. Promotion of safety and health activities.
5. Lower overhead expense.

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6. Assurance of medical service and rehabilitation.
7. Harmonious labor relations on liability issues.
8. Less burden on public and private charity.

It is easy to understand why proponents of workmen's compensation willingly surrendered the right to a civil suit against the employer in order to obtain the above objectives.

With the common law thickets cleared away, the state legislatures responded with encouraging alacrity. The first state laws went into effect in 1911 and by 1920 they extended to all but six states. But laws are very often if not always what the courts interpret, regardless of what legislators intend. The disposition of the courts, sharply delineated by the New York Court of Appeals in the Ives decision, was that the compensation acts infringed on the "due process" amendment, and much of the refreshing purpose of the compensation statutes was stultified by the brooding issue of constitutionality. The laws slowly and painfully gained legitimacy, but at a cost of debilitating concessions, limitations, and retreat which still exist to hamper their usefulness.

Of all the strictures arising directly out of attempts to avoid challenge of constitutionality, perhaps none has been more far-reaching and deleterious than the "elective laws" whereby an employer could "elect" not to be included in the compensation set-up if he were willing to forfeit his common law defense. Such laws were a serious setback to the principle of compulsory participation. Of 54 states and territories with compensation statutes nearly half are elective. One of their effects has been to deny or weaken attempts to liberalize benefits, by simple threat of nonparticipation, i.e., an employer "strike."

A practice under all laws is to exclude certain employments—a flat contradiction of compensation doctrine. Further exclusions by size of firm, inadequate enforcement, confusing regulations and excluded injuries, especially those with lost time less than the waiting period, materially increase the number of workers who receive no benefit under existing laws. In spite of these exceptions, Workmen's Compensation has become an immense program. Estimates of total coverage go as high as four out of five workers. Efforts to cover the remaining 20 percent have not been aggressive. Political opposition has been apparent in spite of the fact that those not covered often need protection most—extra-hazardous occupations and employees of

small companies whose limited assets make damage suits unproductive.

One aspect, at least, of Workmen's Compensation is well known—the niggardly benefits. There is a cruel humor about the provisions in most laws: the percent of pay allowed appears adequate if not generous (typically 2/3) but is then briskly swept away by arbitrary dollar and time limits. The top weekly compensation in most states falls between \$25-35, less than half what many laborers earn, not to speak of the more highly paid workmen. In many states, the maximum compensation allowance is less than that allowed by public relief.

Emphasizing inadequate compensation benefits and at the same time providing an explanation of the indifferent pressure to make them adequate has been the development of both public and private programs of aid. The most important public system is the federal Old Age and Survivors Insurance. The major private efforts have been union contract provisions for group life insurance and group accident and health insurance, prominent among which is the United Mine Workers Health and Welfare Plan. Worthy and necessary as such efforts are they mean simply that Workmen's Compensation, showing insufficient vitality to attain its early announced goals, has been bypassed. The picture immerses of a compensation program which is vast, important, and immobile.

Another serious difficulty of the compensation program is high overhead costs. On the whole, employers pay twice as much in premiums as their workers receive in benefits. An initial objective of simple, inexpensive administration, requiring little or no legal expense, has never been reached. In most jurisdictions, compensation insurance is handled by private carriers. This need not be incompatible with the social and economic aims of compensation, but the fact remains that insurance expense is the highest single item of overhead.

Capping the frustrating pyramid of inequitable coverage, low benefits, high costs, handicapped, feeble administration, and competing benefit systems is the failure of Workmen's Compensation to grasp the possibilities of rehabilitation. The literal miracles of rehabilitation are wrought from two well demonstrated but not widely appreciated conditions: (1) the human organism is highly adaptable and can function effectively, with proper training, at only a fraction of normal physical capacity; (2) most industrial jobs require not more than 25 percent of normal physical capacity for adequate performance. Rehabilitation is costly, but it more than repays its cost in restoring the



social and economic value of the crippled worker. It is estimated that the average veteran rehabilitated under federal programs more than repays the cost of treatment and training in the income taxes from subsequent earnings. All other sins of the compensation system might well be forgiven if it were to exploit the potential of modern rehabilitation with persistence and vigor.

This is a highly useful and revealing book, characterized by patient study, lucid presentation, and calm appraisal. The material has been exceptionally well compacted and organized. Clearly, evident discrimination and restraint has been exercised in the selection of tables, statistics, and references. There is an itemized table of contents and a good index. A noteworthy feature of a work devoted to an unavoidably complex subject is an excellently-phrased summary of Workmen's Compensation "at the crossroads" and a firm but sympathetic analysis of its probable future.—HORACE TURNER, *Personnel Technician, Civil Service Commission, Cincinnati, Ohio.*

**The Government and Administration of Wyoming.** Herman H. Trachsel and Ralph M. Wade. Thomas Y. Crowell Company. New York, 1953. 381 pp. \$4.95.

**The Government and Administration of Florida.** Wilson K. Doyle, Angus McKenzie Laird, and S. Sherman Weiss. Thomas Y. Crowell. New York, 1954. 444 pp. \$4.95.

**The Government and Administration of Mississippi.** Robert B. Highsaw and Charles N. Fortenberry. Thomas Y. Crowell Company. New York, 1954. 414 pp. \$4.95.

**The Government and Administration of New York.** Lynton K. Caldwell. Thomas Y. Crowell Company. New York, 1954. 506 pp. \$5.95.

These first four volumes in the American Commonwealth Series, edited by W. Brooke Graves, mark an auspicious start in the most ambitious publication project ever undertaken on the governments of the American states. The editor proposes that over a period of time these aids to information on and understanding of state government be prepared by local political scientists and students of public administration for each of the states and for the four major territories of the U.S. Mr. Graves and the Crowell Company are to be congratulated on the conception of this plan and upon the start in its fruition.

The objective of the series is to present a

"complete description and analysis of state governmental institutions and procedures on a sound scholarly basis." The emphasis in the mold Mr. Graves has prepared for the authors is upon institutional facts about the existing state governments and not upon political-bureaucratic dynamics. However, authors with insights into the dynamics are permitted to slip some of these observations into their chapters. Authors are also obviously free to express their views on the inadequacies of their state's government and to seek to educate their publics on the directions of change they think their state should take.

Who are the publics for whom the American Commonwealth Series is intended? The college and university students in courses in state government are undoubtedly the primary public, both in terms of the authors' objectives and in answer to the question as to who is to carry the freight if this series is to be financially feasible of completion. Numerous other potential publics exist, however: the seeker of a reference work on a state's government from high school on through the self-educators; civic, citizen, and study groups; and government officials who may need to know more about the state governmental institutions with and within which they work.

The pattern and scope of the books may best be suggested by enumeration of the standard set of topics treated. These are a brief review of the state's economy, history, and geography, and treatments of the state's constitution, system of popular control, legislative organization and procedure, executive system and administrative organization, revenue and financial system, personnel administration, courts and law enforcement system, and the state's administrative system for education, health, welfare, agriculture, natural resources, and labor, business, and vocational regulation. The books also treat briefly local government and intergovernmental relations, among other topics.

The readers of *Public Personnel Review* may be most interested in how the authors looked at personnel administration and what they saw in such different environments as Wyoming, Florida, Mississippi, and New York.

#### Wyoming

The story in Wyoming is a relatively simple one. Wyoming had approximately 2,200 employees on state payrolls (New York had approximately 3,000 job titles for its 87,000 employees; Florida had approximately 24,000 employees; and Mississippi, 10,000 to 14,000). Wyoming's employees fall into three categories

with some blending at the borders. One group comprising about 71 percent is in "independent" agencies and the personnel system is about what these agencies desire to have it, except as accounting and retirement systems force uniformities. Of this group the authors say, "When one factor in selection is past service to the controlling political party, where salaries for the same type, quantity, and quality of work are not uniform, and where tenure is uncertain, good morale cannot be maintained." A second group of about 16 percent of the total comes under the Board of State Supplies, an *ex officio* group of elected officers under the chairmanship of the Governor, which has provided a system of classification, compensation, and personnel records for this small group. Most of the chapter is given to a description of the operation (from recruitment up to retirement) of a one man personnel shop administering the merit system for the approximately 275 employees in the agencies aided under the Social Security Act. The procedures described are good Merit System Council canon, but with agencies doing their own classification and having the initiative in pay. Even in Wyoming there is complaint that formal personnel administration is made difficult by low salaries offered.

#### Florida

More urban and rapidly growing Florida presents a more complex picture. With formal merit systems applicable to three limited groups of employees there remain three groups of employees who live under different, informal personnel "rules." One group is that in agencies directly under the control of the Governor. In these "There is considerable turnover, particularly in the higher-paid ranks," these authors say, "at the beginning of a new administration." They are of the opinion that most of the lower-paid employees retain their jobs and that of the total in this group "perhaps less than 50 percent . . . has been replaced for patronage purposes in the first eight months of any new administration" since 1937. In contrast, "Among most of the board agencies the turnover at the beginning of a new administration is negligible." Vacancies may be filled on a patronage basis, but raiding is limited by tradition, the overlapping terms of board members, and the representation of different factions on the boards. Greatest security prevails in offices of the elected executives, other than the Governor, where indefinite re-election and appointment to fill vacancies in these posts serve to stabilize the situation.

The three merit systems in Florida include

one for the highway patrol operated by the department's executive board, one for the parole commission, and a merit system for the state's Social Security Act agencies. The arrangement for the parole commission is a strange one in which a special examining board prepares a list from which members of the parole commission must be appointed; and the parole commission is required to conduct competitive examinations for positions requiring skill in penal or correctional work. The single Merit System Council for the social security agencies was an accomplishment of 1946 after multiple agencies had been used for a decade. On a larger scale, the pattern of administration is similar to that in Wyoming, with departmental control over classification and pay and "full employment" causing anxieties to the central personnel shop. It will hardly be news that full employment and the provisions for provisional, temporary, and emergency appointments "make it possible for a patronage-minded administrator of an agency to make some political appointments that violate the spirit of the merit system while conforming with the letter of it."

The Florida legislature has been considering bills for a statewide merit system, with such bills passed by each house, but in different sessions. The last reported move was for a \$75,000 study of state employment, with some authority being granted to a budget commission to instrument the recommendations.

#### Mississippi

Mississippians seem frequently quotable and the authors of the volume on that state and the people they listened to are in that category. "[W]ith the exception of a few boards or commissions participating in Federal social security programs, the merit principle of employment is almost unknown" in Mississippi. "The curious dichotomy that is Mississippi's social and political heritage—government by the aristocracy versus government by the artisan and small farmer—stands as a barrier. One views state government as a closed concern; the other reflects the Jacksonian view that public functions and hence positions are susceptible to best performance by amateurs in government. The effects of the nascent industrialization of Mississippi may introduce new factors and bring with them a fruition of the trend, evident now in such functions as public health and highways, toward professionalization of the public service." Statutes provide for an examined and protected game and fish service but a member of the state commission once said "quite a few wardens . . . get political appointments, and they don't look to the director

of the Game and Fish Commission for anything except their checks." However, "employees assigned to technical work generally appear to possess adequate training and technical qualifications." But "salaries paid to state employees are generally low. Sometimes positions have had to be filled on a part-time basis since competent persons were not available for the compensation offered." Typically "employees may be removed for any cause or no cause. So long as there are no bitter factional disputes within the Democratic Party of Mississippi, few wholesale dismissals occur. The possibility of serious damage is always present, though, in the unlimited responsibility placed in administrative heads."

Mississippi keeps the peace with the social security agencies with three departmental merit systems. "It is obvious that the impact of the Federal security program has been to secure and to enforce generally sound practices in these three agencies. Salaries are somewhat above those of other state agencies, tenure is greater, and the effects of the patronage system smaller." However, "personnel management plays little part, even here, in a system of general administrative control." One can thank Messrs. Highsaw and Fortenberry for being so refreshingly thoughtful and expressive. "Hamlet" is also quotable and these authors fear that Mississippians, in their suspicions of political change, stand with Hamlet and "rather bear those ills we have than fly to others that we know not of."

#### New York

A relatively mature and sophisticated bureaucracy such as New York State has is comparable with the other states represented among these books principally in sharp contrasts. Lynton Caldwell's information that one New York agency established a management planning unit in 1935 and that at least eleven departments and divisions now have such management planning units suggests clearly that one is viewing in New York State government something different in more than scale. The integration of administration under the Governor came and came early here. Governors have regularly known how to use their powers, and these facts give a different cast to state government than that in the other states under consideration here, where decentralized state administration still prevails.

In New York in 1883 Assemblyman Theodore Roosevelt assisted in sponsoring a civil service law and Governor Grover Cleveland signed it into law, Caldwell reminds us, and this law, subsequently supplemented and tied

into the constitution, has remained basic employment policy for the state. In the 1930's the state law's application to all local government employees was made effective, with the state personnel agency supplying the service or policing the local governments. The Department of Civil Service is a big, established public business, with divisions of personnel research and training as well as the standard complement of divisions. Departmental personnel officers are numerous and several of their offices are well developed personnel establishments. The department "has reversed traditional recruiting methods." New tests have been constructed to identify promising administrative talent. Veteran preference was reduced to manageable proportions. Numerous programs of employee training are in existence. Internships for psychiatrists, tax researchers, psychologists, attorneys, sanitarians, and public management people are standard operating features. Interdepartmental promotion examinations have been initiated. Merit awards for outstanding employee accomplishments are almost a decade old. These and other developments of "positive" personnel programs Caldwell reports.

Without being explicit, however, he suggests that the early emphasis on holding both doors securely to provide a secure employment situation against patronage moves is still one of the stronger forces. On the other hand, he doesn't report such information as the current lag in the giving of promotional exams for the upper ranks and what the current views are as to the quality of the examinations generally. And he does let a quotation say for him that "Barriers to . . . an efficient career system with high public prestige and stable employee morale include inflexibility, legalism and lack of imagination which prevents adoption of many improvements. There exists also an insistent and basically dangerous factor of political opposition to the merit system." To readers who know the government of any industrial state it will be obvious that New York presents a mixed situation in quality of personnel administration, with "highs" and "lows" and no clear reconciliation of the needs of the current political leadership for flexibility and of employees for security.

The American Commonwealth Series, as it continues, will permit the specialists in the personnel field and in all other fields of administration to sample the climates in which their fellows work. Life in the shadow of the capitol domes will not be transparent, but it will be less shadowed.—KARL A. BOSWORTH, *Associate Professor of Government, University of Connecticut.*

# personnel literature

## abstracts of current articles

### 1955 CSA Abstracters

The following members of the Civil Service Assembly have accepted the editor's invitation to serve as abstracters of articles for the "Personnel Literature" section of *Public Personnel Review* during 1955.

Mrs. Erna W. Adler, Formerly, Personnel Technician, Municipal Civil Service Commission, New Rochelle, New York

Fred R. Alleman, New Jersey State Department of Civil Service, Trenton, New Jersey

Charles A. Brown, Personnel Technician, Contra Costa County Civil Service Commission, Martinez, California

Richard Byler, Administrative Assistant and Planning Analyst, Planning Commission, County of Montgomery, Pennsylvania

Robert B. Code, Chief of Personnel, Department of Mines and Technical Surveys, Canada

Carl Gardecki, Personnel Technician, Wayne County Civil Service Commission, Detroit, Michigan

Jesse R. Graham, Jr., Civil Service Commission and Department of Personnel, City of Cincinnati, Ohio

W. Brooke Graves, Legislative Reference Service, Library of Congress, Washington, D. C.

David D. Greenhalgh, Personnel Technician, Civil Service Commission, Los Angeles, California

Miss Virginia Hagney, Chief Examiner, Civil Service Commission, City of Rockford, Illinois

William Krieg, Personnel Examiner, Municipal Civil Service Board, Portland, Maine

Charles T. Martin, Chief, Classification Division, Fifth Regional Office, U.S. Civil Service Commission, Atlanta, Georgia

R. L. W. Ritchie, Chief Personnel Officer, British Columbia Civil Service Commission, Victoria, B. C., Canada

Lawrence E. Rogers, Personnel Technician, Department of Personnel, St. Louis, Missouri

Henry Spiegelblatt, Assistant to the President, Board of Health, City of Chicago, Illinois

Tom Womble, Assistant Personnel Director, Miami Beach, Florida

### Personnel Administration

**Buchele, Robert B.**, "Company Character and the Effectiveness of Personnel Management." *Personnel*, January, 1955.—Firms have unique characteristics that vitally affect the results obtained by personnel management measures; yet there are no adequate tools to analyze and evaluate this complex interaction. For example, the type of leadership climate and boss tend to be more important in foremen's conduct than in supervisory training where it may be harmful. Job evaluation plans reflecting a cost control character, rather than a complete personnel program, have only limited value and possibly harmful side effects. Selection programs of a bureaucratic company realistically do not choose managers who want to make decisions. Most company character classifications are either superficial or special purpose. A suggested analytical framework for analysis includes the basic factors: (1) Supportive programs and structures, i.e., is job evaluation only a cost control device or is there a complete personnel program? (2) Decision making and initiative expectation, i.e., is initiative rewarded, or in actual practice do the rewards go to routine followers? (3) Superior-subordinate relationships, i.e., do you really practice what is taught in supervisory training courses? Special factors that are important in varying degrees include: (1) managers' personalities and interests, (2) product and mission, (3) profitability and growth, (4) nature of work and work groups, (5) surrounding community. Realistic company characteristic analysis can be tackled by traditional opinion survey methods, careful listening, and use of independent directors who can speak frankly. Mature clinical analysis, in-

stead of a gimmick or keep-up-with-the-Joneses approach, will help indicate the limitations of modern practices, fit personnel measures to the situation, and may gradually bring about a slow change in the company character, if such a change is desirable.—Richard Byler.

### Trends and Forecasts

Ricketts, Edmond F., "Trends and Forecasts in Personnel." *Public Management*, January, 1955.—There are many recent developments in personnel administration. These are trends toward a bigger role for the employee in influencing and deciding the policies and practices which affect him. The future pattern in municipal personnel matters seems likely to include: (1) A steadily increasing proportion of the cities' employees in unions; recognition of unions; more frequent meetings of management and employee representatives resulting in formal bargaining agreements. (2) More security of tenure and assurance of year-round employment. (3) Wages and salary rates will continue to increase when the consumers price index is ascending slowly. (4) A maximum work week of 40 hours. (5) Time and one-half for time over eight hours per day and forty hours per week, as well as premium pay for Sunday and holiday work. (6) Other payments such as night shift differentials, hazard pay, travel time pay, minimum pay for reporting for duty when conditions prevent work. (7) Shorter waiting period for pay increases based on length of service. (8) Greater weight to seniority. (9) Hospital and medical cost insurance and life insurance. (10) Retirement plans including special local benefits. In the face of these trends and prospects, cities and managers can do a good deal to influence the time and manner of appearance of these changes and temper their cost by some serious stock-taking extending to the following items: (1) Does the city have an up-to-date classification and pay plan and written personnel policies? (2) Does the city know how it stands in relation to the practices of other employers? (3) Has the city provided itself with a complete and up-to-date picture of what it is already spending on so-called fringe benefits? (4) Has the city made each unit of work time available fully productive by tapping the considerable potential reservoir of support by employees who want to do an honest day's work? (5) Finally, has the city approached its personnel problem with the objective of reaching a solution which is mutually advantageous—for the employee as well as for the city?—Charles T. Martin.

### Employee Relations

Stevens, Richard, "Are Human Relations Plans Like the Emperor's Clothes?" *Advanced Management*, September, 1954.—"Your people sound as if they enjoyed working together" was the statement made by a visitor. The comment led to some constructive thinking and study about personnel management and about "human relations in industry" and resulted also in a sort of refresher course by the author.

Big corporations are spending more than ever on "personnel appraisals"; many have elaborate "human relations programs" and spend a great deal of time and money in training programs. The author believes that conviction is the key to success in tapping resources of human cooperation. The profit sharing plan of his firm exists because they believe it is a decent, equitable way to treat people, and not because loyalty can be "bought" with the latest techniques. Some businessmen try to "buy" this morale, but it differs from other assets in that it cannot be "bought or planned or installed." You get morale by deserving it. Management may employ all the modern morale improving devices without success because employees do not respond like production equipment.

Some businesses, such as that of advertising, are assumed to produce good morale naturally. But author Stevens believes this is not so, and that most jobs in advertising agencies are not especially glamorous or creative. "Just for fun" he checked to see if the "rules" for good personnel practice were followed by his firm. For example, one department was making a lot of mistakes in figuring costs. Those in charge "hung around for a few days . . . found the trouble and the answer," instead of disciplining or firing the employees.

There are helpful techniques which are important, but management must first believe in something real if techniques are to work. "If you believe in the people you employ, it does not much matter what you do." This fact of the human condition is as patent as the fact that the "invisible" clothes of the emperor, noticeable only by the wise, were in fact, no clothes at all.—Fred R. Alleman.

Gray, Elisha, "Let's Put People in our Balance Sheet." *Advanced Management*, January, 1955.—Business has failed to render a full accounting of itself. It has reported only financial responsibilities and has failed to account for human assets. Here is a proposal for a new balance sheet for American business. There was a time when private business management exercised decisive responsibilities over the direction



of the national economy. Since 1933, however, many of the traditional prerogatives of business ownership have been diluted or sharply curtailed. The failure of business to provide a measure of security resulted in greater governmental control which in turn set up the powerful voice of labor. Just as rugged individualism overplayed its hand earlier, however, so too did government and labor overplay their hands. The effort is now being made to de-emphasize the role of the federal government as the beginning and end of all good things. To make the most out of this swing of the pendulum, we must lead in a direction which is compatible with the pulse of the times. We must acknowledge that in addition to the ordinary assets which we list on our balance sheet, there are unlisted assets which contribute greatly to business success. It is surely an asset to be able to operate in a community which is well-balanced socially, educationally, and in its government. Transcending these assets, however, is the asset of the people of the business. Business management must learn these ancient truths: the inherent dignity of the individual; man's instinct to be part of a group in which he can have genuine pride; his desire to be recognized. The company must give the individual a sense of pride in belonging to it. This sense of pride must begin at the top and seep down. Intangibles such as loyalty, devotion, and pride in a company cannot be bought by a pay check, but they can all be earned by what management does. Not management in the abstract or what management says about itself, but what every executive does in his day-to-day actions. Financial reports today indicate a company's performance on the basis of dollars alone. Let's construct a balance sheet in which dollars are only one ingredient. Instead of only a financial accounting, we should encourage a public accounting on the additional value of a company's citizenship, its reinvestment of earnings for future growth, and its success in the handling of the human factors.—*Henry Spiegelblatt.*

### Communication

Spence, Lewis H., "The Role of a Free Press in Employee Communications." *Personnel Journal*, December, 1954.—Recent studies have revealed that although communications in industry are a currently popular trend, the real function of such communications is generally not realized. The tool, communications, is not being utilized to the fullest degree by industry in putting across to their readers what they need and want to know. Too often manage-

ment feels it ought to say something to the public, to its employees, or its stockholders just because it seems to be the fad of the moment. Since management, in realizing the importance of employee communications, concentrates more on this phase of communications than any other, it is reasonable to apply knowledge gained from the survey of this area of communications to the improvement of other types.

The use of such handy-to-use media as panel discussions, comic books, etc., has proven an expedient, but not the most effective means (when used alone) of communicating with employees. This trend toward expediency rather than planning in employee communications was pointed out recently by the Douglas Williams Association, following their survey of communications in the field of employee education. Oral communications (group meetings, panel discussions, etc.) have proved workable in small plants, but their value as a successful means of communication in larger plants is doubtful. Although written communications (bulletin boards, company magazines, etc.) have proved a good means of communicating with employees, as was pointed out by the California Institute of Technology following their recent survey, there is a danger of too much emphasis being put on the readability of the article and not its contents.

To be absorbed by its readers, material should be presented in an interesting, simple, and believable manner. The principles of a free press should be applied at all times. Free press can be defined as: (1) free access to an exchange of information, (2) respect for the audience. It is a moral, if not a legal, right of an employee to know what is going on where he is working.

Employees should be treated as adults and information should not be presented in a condescending manner but with a respect for the curiosity and intelligence of the employees. The most important function of communications from a management point of view should be to give a fair and accurate picture of its actions and intentions. It is too often the case that a good writer is handicapped in his presentation of ideas because of lack of information and cooperation from management in stating its objectives and policy. Good journalism in the presentation of ideas to employees, stockholders, and the public is important, but communication cannot be successful without the cooperation and desire of management to present the facts to its readers.—*Virginia Hagney.*

## Training

Eitington, Julius E., "Executive Development Through Job Rotation." *Personnel Administration*, September, 1954.—This article is an outgrowth of the author's participation in the Society for Personnel Administration's Work Group on Executive Development. The objectives of executive development are "the improvement of the administrative know-how of present executive personnel and the development of managerial skills in those individuals who exhibit executive potential." The execution of such a program may well proceed in accordance with the four-step method developed by Lawrence A. Appley and widely used in private industry: (1) appraisal; (2) review; (3) appraisal interview—or counseling; (4) development. The diversity of executive development techniques is illustrated by a full-page table on the planned development program used by the American Enka Corporation under which top management plans for future needs, inventories personnel potential, and develops a time schedule of organizational changes and replacements. The personnel performance and potential of each supervisor is subject to periodic review. Efforts are then made to utilize available resources to meet the individual needs of each supervisor through (1) on-the-job activities; (2) outside educational courses; (3) inside conference courses; (4) broadened company experience, which includes job rotation; (5) professional activities; (6) personal and community activities. These resources are employed either individually or in varying combinations. While it is recognized that executive development cannot be accomplished by one method alone, it is contended that the most effective single method is that of job rotation. The remainder of the article describes the use made of this device in the executive development program of the Navy Department and enumerates and briefly discusses the advantages and disadvantages of this type of training. While the Navy Department program suffered from the very short duration of the rotation assignments, and while this device has not found acceptance in executive development programs in industrial research laboratories, it is held that its advantages far outweigh the known objections to it. Navy Department trainees in the work group agreed that their rotational experience had had a number of positive benefits which: (1) increased their knowledge of and their ability to comprehend management situations, problems, and principles; (2) instilled the habit of thinking in management terms; (3) extended their knowl-

edge of governmental and industrial organization; (4) broadened their outlook, both from a professional and a management viewpoint; (5) increased their self-confidence and ability to express themselves among strangers; (6) provided an opportunity for self-appraisal by gauging themselves against others; and (7) enabled them to meet associates in their own and other fields.—*W. Brooke Graves.*

Ault, O. E., "Executive Development in Canadian Government." *Personnel Administration*, November, 1954.—Government in Canada has experienced a shortage of senior personnel. Civil Service vacancies are filled by promotion and open competitions, and the continuing need for large numbers of open competitions has caused concern. Despite improvement in methods of advancement, needs are still greater than supply. Recruitment from outside at junior levels and subsequent training has been undertaken. Selected young supervisors from within service are given similar training. Intermediate and senior civil servants are encouraged to take university training on educational leave. Departments arrange special courses for particular requirements and encourage participation in activities of scientific organizations. Recently a course in government administration for senior officers was arranged by the Civil Service Commission for better understanding of political, legislative, social, and economic settings within which civil servants work. There remained the wide range of intermediate officers. For these, executive development programs are being introduced in certain departments; programs include rotation and district office experience. Further courses are being designed by the Civil Service Commission for the purpose of providing the intermediate officer with an opportunity to assess himself and his methods. Repetition at various course levels is avoided. The junior officers' course is in orientation and skills with simple case studies in administration; the intermediate provides for discussion of principles and methods, evaluation of past experience and study of senior work and its implications; the senior course brings officers into relationship with authorities in various fields of government to provide a broader view of administration. To summarize, the Canadian civil servant can rise to senior levels by promotion and can prepare himself for accelerated promotion by taking advantage of training opportunities.—*Robert B. Code.*

Fredriksen, C. W. and Martinson, Helmer, "Helping Supervisors Train Themselves in

Human Relations." *Personnel*, January, 1955.—Fourteen men were seated around a large table in a conference room of the Tennessee Valley Authority. Twelve were supervisors. Two (the authors) were from the Personnel Department, one serving as chairman and the other as a resource person. This was the TVA's human-relations training program in action. One of its most distinctive features is its use of the trainees themselves for group discussion. Dealing with real—and as yet unresolved—problems, this material enables trainees to analyze and follow a dynamic case situation that may easily change from one training meeting to another. Before the conferences started, we met with the management of divisions from which supervisors were to be invited to participate. We explained that the make-up of the group was of critical importance to the success of the conference as a learning experience. For this reason, participants must be carefully chosen in accordance with three criteria. First, members of the group should come from different units within a division. The main reason for this is to increase the likelihood that diverse points of view will be represented in the group. The second criterion is that members should be at about the same supervisory level. We find this important because it helps to assure that problems discussed will be interesting and challenging to most or all of the group members. A related criterion is that a supervisor should not be included in the same group with his superior. In a few cases where we had two members related in this way, it seemed to us that the subordinates did not express their opinions freely. An essential part of the process we follow in these conferences is to get members of the group to contribute problem cases. We feel this is essential because the supervisors become immediately involved by taking part in deciding the content of the meetings, the needs and interests of the group are made known, and the supervisors identify themselves more readily with problems coming from their own group. Disguising problem cases is another "must" in these conferences. When supervisors do not know whose problem is being discussed, they feel free to comment about what has been done. What is there about these conferences that evokes favorable reactions from supervisors? We believe the answer is that supervisors may take part in them without feeling a threat or a loss of personal status. They decide what the content is to be by providing and deciding on cases to be discussed. In short, they are able to behave in ways that are consistent with what they perceive their status to be!—*William E. Krieg*.

**Wilcox, Robert F.**, "Practical Use of Student Trainees in Finance Departments," *Municipal Finance*, November, 1954.—The best preparation for the public service is a broad educational background, including a period of exposure to operating conditions and problems. A student trainee program helps to bridge the wide gap between classroom and office and makes the former intern a more useful, productive, and imaginative employee. Such programs range from short, informal training arrangements to two-year periods of highly organized work experience. Most intern programs are for graduate students, but there is a fertile field for development at the undergraduate level. Any compensation paid to an intern should not be for services rendered because this contradicts the basic concept that the internship is an educational experience, not a job. With regard to assignment, an intern should not perform merely clerical and routine tasks. Whether he should be given one long-term assignment or a number of shorter, varied assignments is a matter which must be fitted both to the intern and to the agency. A qualified intern can incidentally perform useful tasks for the agency, but should not be assigned projects requiring maturity and judgment which can be gained only on the job. The essentials of a sound student trainee program include: (1) that it be education-oriented rather than job-oriented; (2) that the student trainees be carefully screened by both college and governmental agency; (3) that there be an orientation program which is neither too short nor so intensive as to be beyond the intern's ability to assimilate; (4) that the supervisors understand their primary educational objective; (5) that the intern's progress be properly evaluated in terms of his ability to learn, to analyze, to initiate, and to solve problems. If a student trainee program is operated as a cooperative effort of college and government agency, it will be a source of deep satisfaction to both, and will be of maximum value to participating students.—*David D. Greenhalgh*.

### Supervision

**Wilcox, William S.**, "The Supervisor is the Practicing Personnel Man." *Advanced Management*, January, 1955.—The idea that we are making substantial progress in solving our employee relations problems is one of the greatest hoaxes of modern industry. So spoke recently an unusually tough-minded personnel director. Employee relations problems in the majority of unionized companies are no longer the active concern of the industrial relations staff.

Unions in recent years have discouraged any contact with individual employees except through union channels. Industrial relations responsibilities since the mid-thirties have been purely a staff or advisory function. Thus, the supervisor became the practicing personnel man and the trained Industrial Relations staff became a standby facility. Personnel relations is a collection of incidental techniques, not comprising a major function entitled to representation on or by top management. An exponent of the "pure staff" concept of Industrial Relations in conducting trade school courses in foremanship notes marked trends in the steady transfer to the line of functions and duties formerly carried by the staff. It describes the supervisory role in personnel administration as having numerous responsibilities: selection of new employees, orientation, relationship with the union, wage and salary administration, integrating the over-all management personnel function, etc. Courses to develop greater awareness and competence in foremen cover his activities and responsibilities in training, effecting communications, and in labor relations. While all of these duties must be performed, many question the unshared responsibility to be placed on the production supervisor. Work stoppages indicate that the line supervisors prefer to attend to their production duties. Just as they do not need staff assistance on production problems, neither do they feel a need for staff advice on employee relations problems. But strikes over employee relations problems are found to be increasing at an alarming rate. This points up the need to re-examine the practicability of the line supervisor's handling of employee relations problems. A frank analysis by management would be one step toward understanding the causes of the employee relations problems. At the same time, the human relations activities designated to the industrial relations staff should be analyzed.—Charles A. Brown.

### Employee Rating

Pockrass, Jack, "Performance Evaluation—Forms or Substance." *Personnel Administration*, September 1954.—Basic to supervision of personnel is establishing proper performance requirements, making these standards known to the employees, and keeping the employees informed as to their strong and weak points in relation to these standards. To carry this type of supervision into effect, we do not have to continue to rely upon the formal rating system which we have been accustomed to using. To move on to a more effective management of

personnel, we must concentrate on securing supervisors who are efficient in their work process and even more competent in their human relation skills. Good supervisors can realize a more dynamic procedure in evaluating employee performance on a continuous rather than an annual basis. One advantage of not relying on a formal rating system is that recognition can be given more frequently for outstanding work. Through the proper use of incentive awards, letters of appreciation and commendation, honorary awards, and the superior accomplishment pay increase, supervisors could stimulate their employees to reach an ever higher level of performance. It is the day-to-day recognition or lack of recognition that makes the difference in employee job satisfaction and employee productivity. Hundreds of different formal rating systems have been developed, used, and discarded by business concerns and by governmental agencies. The evidence should be obvious that the solution to the problem of performance rating does not lie in perfecting rating forms. The solution is more likely to be found in improving the knowledge and skill of supervisors in the difficult art of human relations. Employee evaluation is postulated as a natural and normal part of capable supervision.—Lawrence E. Rogers.

### Managers

Sayre, Wallace S., "The General Manager Idea for Large Cities," *Public Administration Review*, Autumn, 1954.—Many large cities require general managerial direction. This need can best be met by establishing under the mayor a general manager. It would preserve the office of the mayor as the focal point of political leadership and responsibility. This plan can be looked upon as a further refinement of the manager idea and a competitor to the council manager. The council-manager plan has not found acceptance in the large cities. Studies have not revealed why this is so. Eight large cities have adopted the mayor general manager plan and two more large cities have it under consideration. This number is impressive and reflects the changing needs of large cities. The mayor general manager plan is not a finished doctrine. There are variations in the operation of this plan by the five cities that are using it. The future of the mayor general manager plan which is the product of many influences is dependent on the permanent characteristics of large cities. This plan serves to strengthen the position of the elected chief in his political and administrative leadership. The mayor general manager plan is adaptable to the needs of cities

with a population of 100,000 and upward. The mayor general manager plan is elastic and involves less risk if sufficient power is given to the general manager. This gives the general manager greater managerial leverage. Can the general manager be a professional administrator and second in command to the mayor? The council-manager plan is plagued more by this than is the mayor general manager plan. The essence of the mayor general manager plan is the appointment and removal of the general manager by the mayor. The mayor general manager plan brings the reorganization of our city governments into focus consistent with our efforts on other levels of government. It is an indigenous political idea.—*Carl Gardecki.*

Simpson, James Wright, "Tomorrow's Manager Will be a Generalist," *Advanced Management*, January, 1955.—Management training is essential in order to develop qualities of industrial leadership in young executives. We have no definition of the principles involved in molding a management generalist, one who can manage not only a company, but any given part of a company. We do know that management at the top level demands something more than top ability as a specialist. The present need for training in management skill is vital in order to overcome the deficiency of young

managers resulting from two world wars, the great depression, and the failure to develop a system capable of producing as many able young managers as our industrial economy requires. Competitive pressures bring out the shortcomings of the specialist functioning in a broader field, and the all-round manager is developed, either by himself or by pressure from without. The management prospect must be guided in analyzing the facts and implications of his executive position. Skill in human relations may dominate the next twenty-five years as industrial engineering has dominated the past twenty-five; because people, even more than money, materials, and methods, are the medium in which the manager must move and the means by which he must accomplish his proper aims. He must learn more human arts, how to lead, inspire, and how to communicate effectively. The manager must also know and appreciate sales, production, finance, industrial relations, organization, and the like, in order to maintain a balance among the elements of his command. The knowledge of what constitutes managerial skill is available with teaching techniques now being applied, but the effort must be more widespread than it is. Industrial leadership today is a profession which requires cultivation of mind and character, breadth of knowledge, awareness, understanding, and the acceptance of discipline.—*Erna W. Adler.*



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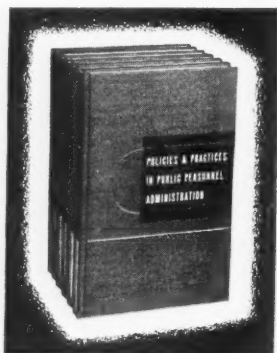
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